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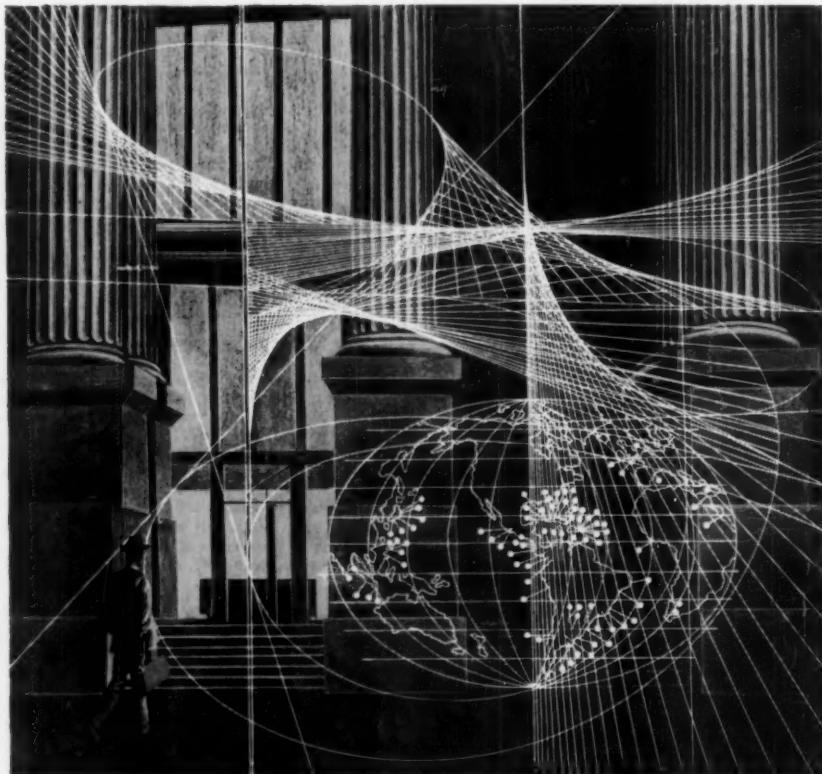
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# THE AMERICAN- SCANDINAVIAN REVIEW

VOL. XLVIII

MARCH, 1960

NUMBER 1

ERIK J. FRIIS, *Editor*

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THE AMERICAN-SCANDINAVIAN FOUNDATION

## CONTENTS

THE ATOMIC ENERGY RESEARCH CENTER AT RISØ	Frontispiece
THE DANISH ATOMIC ENERGY RESEARCH CENTER. By Torkild Bjerge. Six Illustrations	15
GUÐJÓN SAMUELSSON: ARCHITECT OF ICELAND. By Benedikt Gröndal. Eight Illustrations	24
JAPANESE POEM. A POEM. By Tómas Guðmundsson. Translated from the Icelandic by Einar Haugen	32
NORWAY'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE INTERNATIONAL GEO- PHYSICAL YEAR. By Anders K. Orvin. One Map and Six Illustrations	33
BRINGING UP CHILDREN BILINGUALLY. By George O. Totten	42
FYRKAT: A VIKING CAMP IN JUTLAND. By Olaf Olsen. Four Illustrations	47
PAUL CHRISTIAN SINDING. AN EARLY SCANDINAVIAN-AMERICAN HISTORIAN. By Oscar J. Falnes	53
THE TRAVELING STATE THEATER OF SWEDEN. By Birgit Wadin-Qvarnström. Six Illustrations	59
THE EARLIEST VOYAGES TO GREENLAND. By G. J. Marcus	65
A FISHERMAN GOES ASHORE. A SHORT STORY. By Johan Bojer. Translated from the Norwegian by Astri Strømsted	71
SCANDINAVIANS IN AMERICA	77
THE QUARTER'S HISTORY. Denmark, Iceland, Norway, Sweden	79
BOOKS	89
MUSIC NOTES	98
TRAVEL NOTES	99

---

### BOOKS REVIEWED IN THIS ISSUE:

*Eyrbyggja Saga; Nobel*, by Nicholas Halasz; *A Bibliography of Skaldic Studies*, by L. M. Hollander; *Jean Sibelius*, by Harold E. Johnson; *The Saga of the Folkungs; Engelbrekt*, by August Strindberg; *The Vasa Trilogy: Master Olof; Gustav Vasa; Erik XIV*, by August Strindberg; *Methodology in the Study of International Relations*, by Trygve Mathisen; *Ingrid Bergman. An Intimate Portrait*, by Joseph Henry Steele; *Edvard Munch. Graphic Art and Paintings I-III*, by Arve Moen. *Helligdag. Erindringer*, by Caspar Hasselriis.

THE REVIEW is published quarterly, in March, June, September and December. Price \$6.00. Single copies \$1.50. Associates of the Foundation receive the REVIEW upon payment of membership dues.

Editorial and executive offices, 127 East 73rd St., New York. All communications for publication should be addressed to the editorial office.

All articles in *The American-Scandinavian Review* are indexed in the *International Index*.

The views expressed in all signed articles, book reviews, and other contributions which appear in *The American-Scandinavian Review* are those of the individual authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the Editors of the Review or the Trustees of The American-Scandinavian Foundation.

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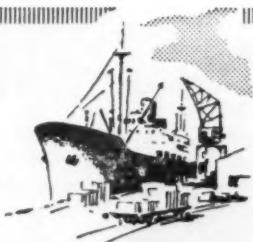


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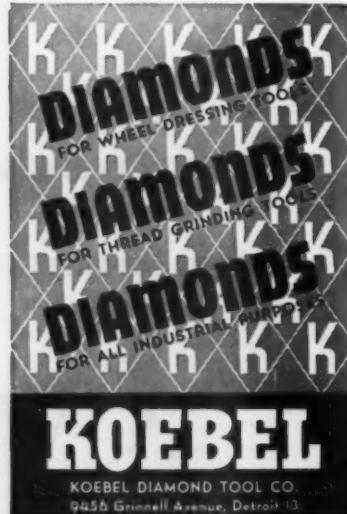
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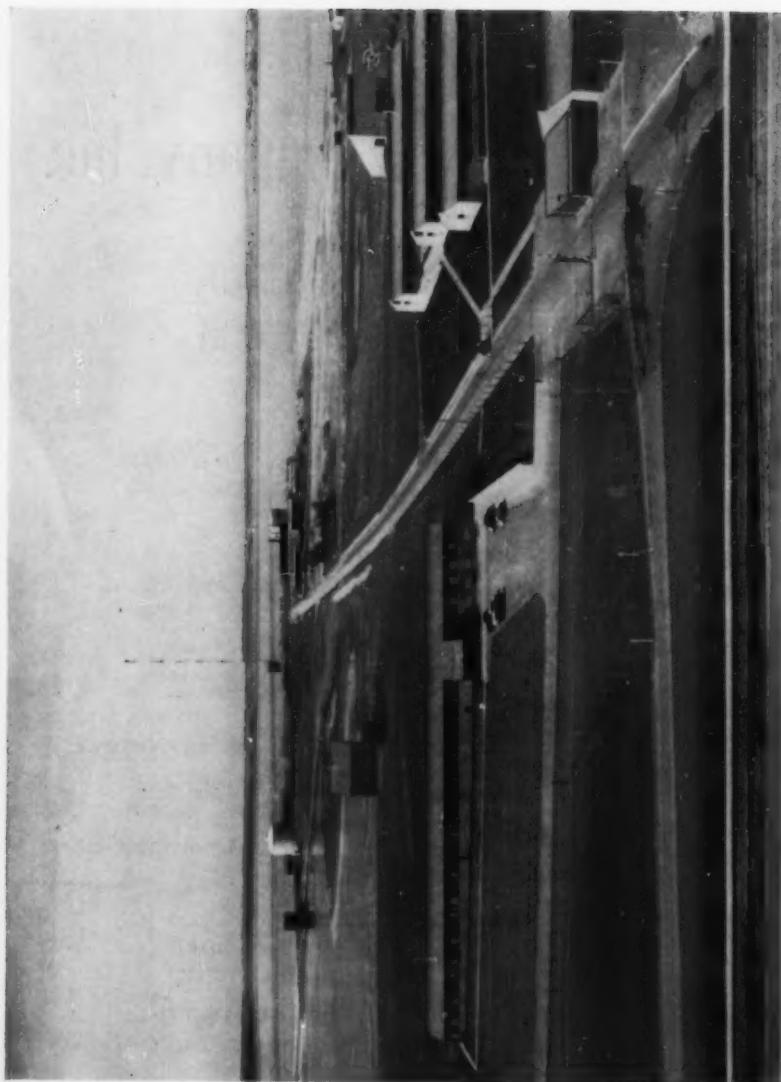
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## THE DANISH ATOMIC ENERGY RESEARCH CENTER

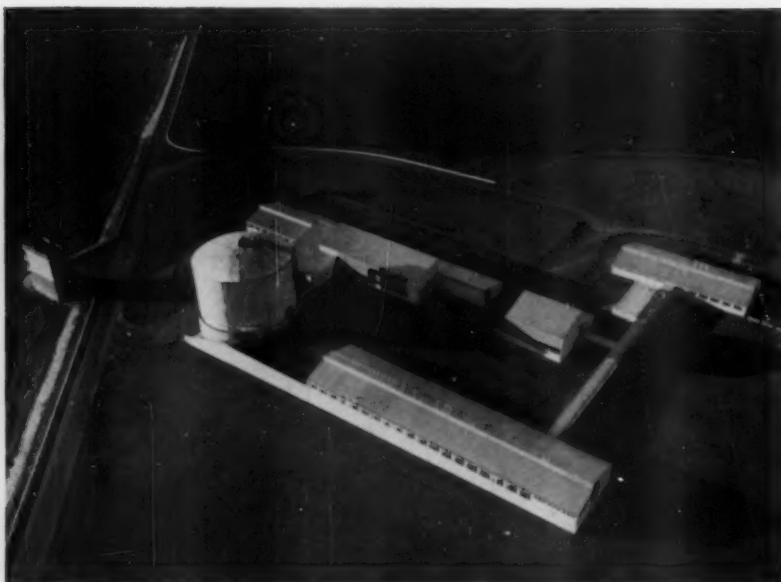
By TORKILD BJERGE

THE release of great amounts of energy from the nuclei of uranium atoms by means of a chain reaction based on the so-called fission process was first demonstrated by Enrico Fermi and his team in Chicago in December, 1942.

Since then the development of this new energy source, atomic or nuclear energy, has made enormous progress due to a large-scale research effort, first in the United States, England, Canada, the Soviet Union, and France, and later also in most other technically advanced countries. During the first years after the Second World War the military aspects of the atom were preponderant and the great powers wrapped their research work in veils of secrecy. But the pressing need for more energy in the future than we can ever expect to obtain from coal and oil has shifted the emphasis to peaceful applications of nuclear energy. Secrecy surrounding scientific and technical efforts had become a heavy burden, and so it was a great relief when President Eisenhower presented his "Atoms for Peace" program to the United Nations in 1953. A wealth of scientific and technical information was subsequently released by the great powers, and the smaller countries also were given better possibilities for doing research and development in the field of atomic energy for peaceful purposes by giving them access to uranium, even in the form enriched in Uranium 235.

*The Danish Atomic Energy Commission*

In Denmark the Government decided to make use of these possibilities; agreements for cooperation, including the delivery of enriched uranium,



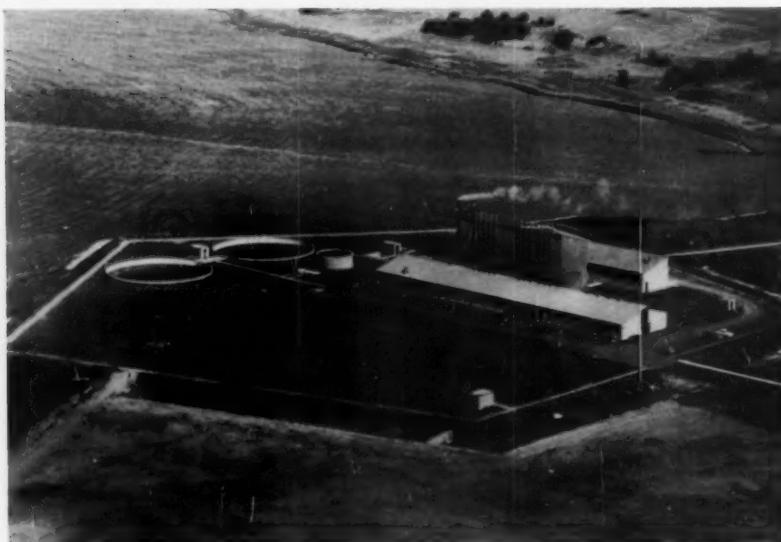
*The reactor DR 2 with adjacent laboratories*

were concluded with the United States and with the United Kingdom in 1955, and an Atomic Energy Commission was established by an act of December 21, 1955. The renowned physicist Professor Niels Bohr was appointed its chairman.

In the United States, in England, and in the Soviet Union, large-scale atomic power stations are already producing electric power, and others are under construction. They are not yet economically competitive with conventional power stations, but it is expected that new atomic stations will become competitive in five or ten years, provided they are sufficiently large and can be used as base-load stations, *i.e.*, having a high overall factor of utilization.

Under the conditions prevailing in Denmark it will possibly be longer before it becomes economically justifiable to build large-scale atomic power stations, and in view of the very great investment which their construction will require it was decided first to make an investment in "know-how."

Thus, one of the main tasks of the Danish Atomic Energy Commission has been to build a research establishment where scientists and engineers can work experimentally with the many scientific and technological problems

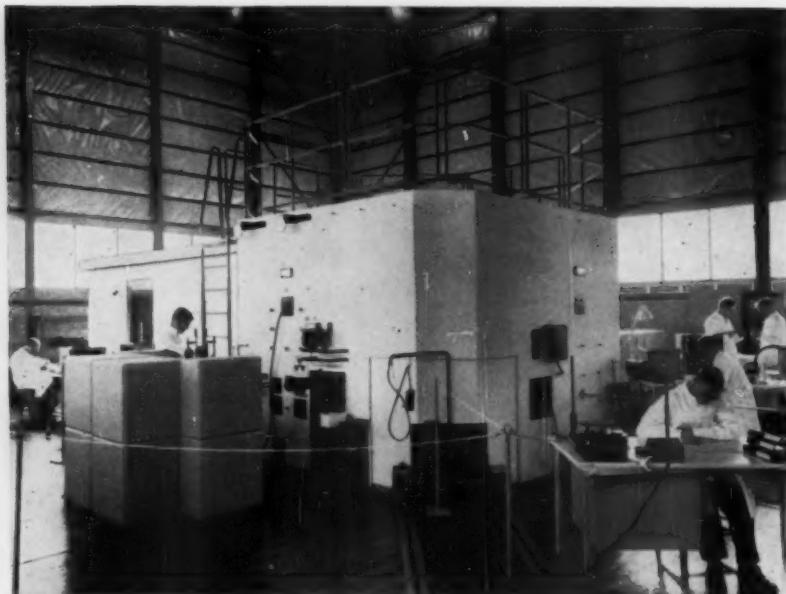


*The waste water decontamination plant*

in this new field, and will acquire the personal experience necessary if Denmark is to have the fullest benefit of the new source of energy and all that it brings with it in technical development.

The "furnace" or source of heat in atomic energy is the nuclear reactor, in which a swarm of neutrons incessantly bombard the uranium, causing the release of heat and of fresh neutrons. The technological problems consist of constructing the reactor so that the heat can be carried away to useful purposes, that the reactor can be controlled, and that the materials involved do not capture the neutrons to such an extent that a chain reaction becomes impossible. Further, these materials must be able to withstand the constant neutron bombardment without deterioration, and it must be possible to avoid the dangerous radiations emitted from the uranium after bombardment.

These problems can be studied, without building a large and very expensive power reactor, by merely constructing a research reactor, *i.e.*, a small reactor capable of producing similar conditions of heat development and neutron flux as those prevailing in a large reactor, only in a much smaller volume.



*Physicists at work at DR 1*

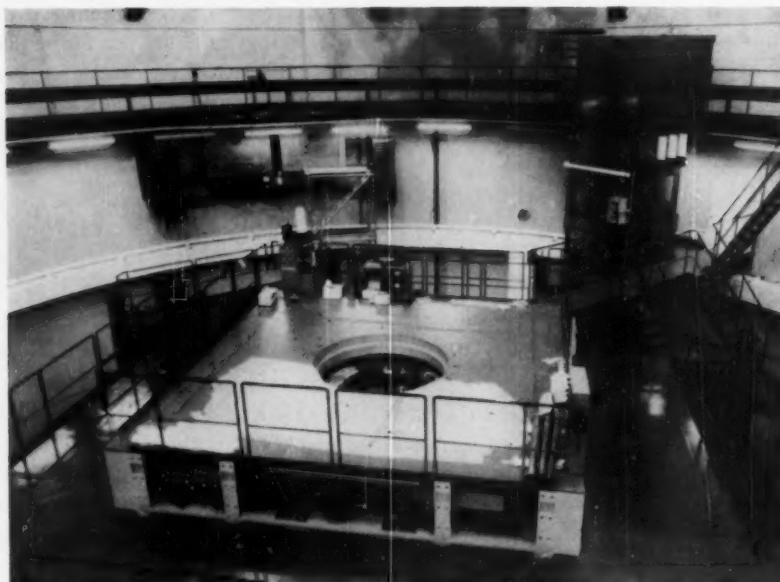
#### *The Building of the Research Center*

It was decided to build three research reactors, DR 1, DR 2 and DR 3 (Danish Reactor No. 1, No. 2, and No. 3), for somewhat different purposes. In addition there had to be laboratories for chemistry, physics, reactor studies, electronics, and health physics.

A suitable site was found at the peninsula Risø in Roskilde Fjord, some twenty miles west of Copenhagen, and work at the site began in the summer of 1956.

A peninsula was chosen as the site because the reactors and laboratories, where large quantities of radioactive material are handled, could be isolated without incurring great expenses. Much of the work, however, goes on in laboratories where there is extremely little radioactive material, or none at all, and these are situated adjacent to the peninsula.

These laboratories were the first of the plants to be completed; already in the summer of 1957 one could open the laboratories for the chemical, reactor, electronic, and physics departments. These departments, each under a departmental head, were already being staffed with scientific personnel; to begin with they were given instruction in the basic principles of reactor



*The upper part of reactor DR 3*

physics and reactor techniques in courses held at the secretariat of the Atomic Energy Commission in Christiansborg Palace. Afterwards they shared in the planning of the laboratories and the work that was to start there, and thus they were able to take up this work as soon as the buildings were completed.

The first research reactor to be built was DR 1, a small reactor in which the chain reaction takes place in a solution of uranium sulphate in ordinary water, the uranium being enriched in the isotope Uranium 235. The neutron flux is comparatively small (some ten thousands of millions of neutrons passing a square centimeter in the middle of the reactor each second), and the heat to be disposed of is only a few kilowatts. DR 1 has been built with components supplied from the American firm Atomics International. This reactor started up in August, 1957, and so far has chiefly been used for providing instruction and training in the operation of a reactor as well as in the techniques of measurement that are connected with atomic energy research, with the control of a reactor, and with the radiations from a reactor or from radioactive materials.

It has thus been possible to supplement the preliminary theoretical train-

ing of the station personnel by means of practical exercises. Engineers from industry and power stations and some engineering students have also had an opportunity of obtaining instruction at DR 1. Five or six regular courses, each for ten or twenty persons, have been given. Besides, special experiments for which this small reactor is particularly suited are being carried out.

Of the two larger reactors, DR 2 is a light-water reactor, where the enriched uranium in the form of aluminum-clad plates is placed in a tank with ordinary water. The neutron flux is about a thousand times larger than in DR 1 and a correspondingly greater amount of heat has to be carried away. This reactor was designed and most of the components delivered by Foster Wheeler Corporation, New York, and the United States has contributed 350,000 dollars to its building cost.

DR 2 started functioning in December, 1958, and was operated at low power for half a year in order to make the staff thoroughly acquainted with it and to measure the many constants important for safe operation. In August, 1959, its power was increased to full operating level. It is used for production of radioactive isotopes, for materials testing on smaller samples, and for neutron beam experiments.

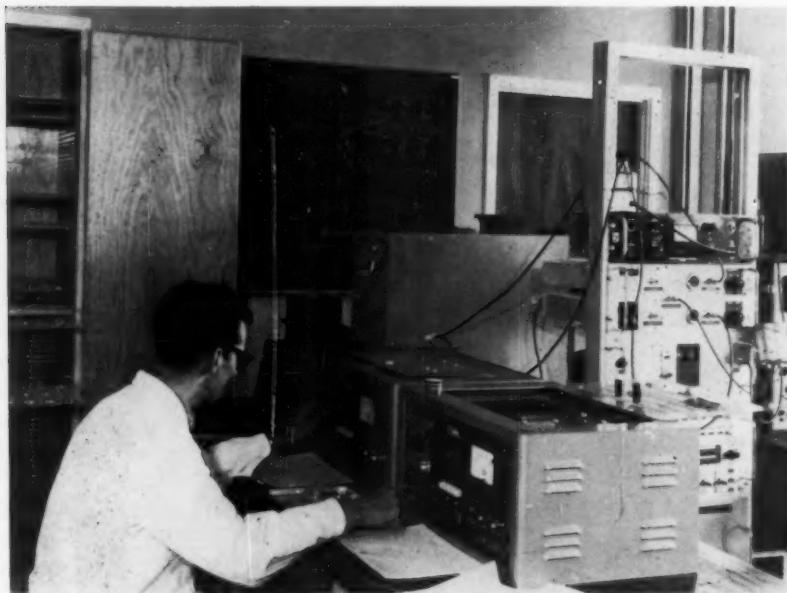
For materials testing on larger samples it is necessary to have a neutron flux field which is extended over a larger volume. For this purpose a heavy-water reactor is advantageous, and the third research reactor, DR 3, is a heavy-water reactor with enriched uranium in aluminum-clad plates. It is a copy of the reactor "Pluto" at Harwell, and the components are made partly by British, partly by Danish firms.

This reactor, which will have a still bigger neutron flux than DR 2, started operation at low level in January, 1960. It will be used for testing of larger specimens, such as fuel elements.

#### *Health Physics*

A very important aspect of the work with atomic energy is the painstaking control to ensure that all construction and all tests are so carried out that the personnel are not exposed to radiation or radioactive contamination, and that neither the plant nor the surrounding district is exposed. This work is the responsibility of the radiation control (or health physics) department, which was established about the same time as the other departments, its laboratory being completed at the end of 1957.

The control consists both in a careful examination, in advance, of all constructions and test mountings involving a risk of radiation, and in radiation measurements when the test is in progress. The instruments are so sensitive that it is possible to measure radiation intensities which are about 100 times smaller than any that can be harmful. In addition, the department



*A room in the Health Physics Laboratory, where tests of the "background" radioactivity of the soil are being carried out*

checks the radiation received by all employees; every person carries a film strip which registers radiation, and the strips are checked every week.

Furthermore, the air, the soil, and the water are checked for radioactivity, and all waste water is being controlled. Radioactive waste must not be discharged into the fjord, but must first pass through a decontamination station where it is distilled and freed from radioactivity.

#### *Agricultural Research*

In 1957, in addition to the five departments already mentioned, a department of agricultural research was established, as it was very naturally desired also to utilize the Risø station in the service of agriculture. The experiments are made along three lines, the first being irradiation of seeds and growing plants in order to develop improved varieties by means of mutations. This is long-term work; but there is active cooperation with plant breeders all over the country, who send in seed and plants for irradiation and thereafter carry out the growing tests in their own experimental fields. Secondly, irradiation experiments are made on potatoes and green vegetables with a



*The Greenhouse of the Agricultural Research Department at Risø*

view to developing better methods of storing and preserving than those now used. Canned meat in small tins can also be irradiated; for experiments with the preservation of bacon a special irradiation facility—a linear accelerator—is planned. Thirdly, experiments are made on plant metabolism, including absorption of phosphorus from fertilized soil, by means of radio isotopes.

#### *Looking to the Future*

The six departments into which the Risø station is divided have separate duties and specially trained staffs; but the fact that they all belong to one institution, that their departmental heads are in daily contact with one another, and that many problems are studied by several departments, should provide the best conditions for successful work by the center as a whole. In addition to the scientific departments there are administrative offices, a library, a canteen, a workshop, and a repair and maintenance department.

The staff numbers at present about 450, of whom approximately 120 are scientists; but the number will grow as the plant is developed. It was not desired that a new town should be built for the personnel; thus, apart from about fifteen engineers and craftsmen, for whom it was necessary to provide accommodation in the vicinity of the center, most of the employees live in and near the town of Roskilde and some in Copenhagen, with which there are fairly good train and bus connections.

A large plant such as this obviously costs a good deal of money; and about 100 million kroner were allocated for its construction. But it must be borne in mind that the fuel required to supply the country's power costs nearly twenty times this amount every year, and that a single nuclear power station of reasonable size costs several hundred million kroner. As many such stations will probably have to be built in the future, it is worth-while to make an effort in order to acquire—through research—the knowledge that will enable us to choose the most economical types for our purposes. Technical and scientific research will also, directly and indirectly, afford factories and other industries a better chance of keeping abreast of developments, and thus will help us to become as well equipped as possible for the solution of those problems with which our country is confronted in the Atomic Age.

*Dr. Torkild Bjerge is one of Denmark's leading physicists. He has been a Professor of Physics in the Danish Technical University, and in 1956 was appointed Director of the Danish Atomic Energy Research Center at Risø.*



## GUÐJÓN SAMÚELSSON: ARCHITECT OF ICELAND

BY BENEDIKT GRÖNDAL

**S**OME visitors to Reykjavík are surprised that this capital city of a nation a thousand years old is architecturally quite new. Though the first Norse settler in Iceland, Ingólfur Arnarson, chose Reykjavík for his home back in the ninth century, the town as it stands today is less than two hundred years old. In fact, the most ardent local patriots cannot point out more than a score of buildings dating back a century or more. Indeed, houses built before World War I are exceptions.

The men of medieval times who wrote the sagas and the Eddas never learned to erect permanent buildings. They came from countries rich in forests and brought most of their wood with them. But sheep nibbled away the slender native woods and imports diminished. Our forefathers never learned the art of stone-cutting. They built of sod and volcanic rock just to last a generation. Wooden façades were until this century the dominating style of building. These grass-roofed farmsteads blend well with the landscape and have indeed a romantic beauty. But as dwellings they are rather primitive.

Architecture in Iceland is in fact only five decades old. During this period it has developed rapidly from the traditional Continental styles of the 'twenties to the modern glass and concrete structures which line the streets of the newest sections of Reykjavík. The leader of this "concrete revolution" was Guðjón Samúelsson (1887-1950). He was a controversial innovator whose buildings today dominate Reykjavík and the smaller towns of Iceland.

Samúelsson won an opportunity which is an architect's dream. He finished his studies in Copenhagen at the end of World War I, just at the time when Iceland once again became an independent nation. There was throughout the country a material as well as spiritual awakening and a desire to build, to provide the nation with adequate housing in addition to public and business buildings. The post of State Architect was vacant, and it was offered to Samúelsson. As there were very few architects in the country, the burden of designing the new buildings fell primarily to him and with it the opportunity for a young architect to show what he could do.

For over thirty years Samúelsson designed most of the larger buildings erected in Iceland. To him we owe our office buildings, schools, hospitals, churches, and homes. When he died, in 1950, the nation was building more and faster than ever, and there were many young architects trained to take over and continue his work.



*Guðjón Samúelsson*

Guðjón Samúelsson was born in 1887, in the Skaftafells-region of south-eastern Iceland, where Iceland's leading painter, Jóhannes Kjarval, also was born. His father, Samúel Jónsson, was a poor farmer, known for his ability as a carpenter. He soon moved to the village of Eyrarbakki on the southern coast, where he became a full-time carpenter, specializing in house building. Young Guðjón showed his artistic bent at an early age, seeming to be equally interested in building and music. In 1900 the family moved to



*The National Hospital in Reykjavik*

Reykjavík and Samúel Jónsson built himself a large frame house not far from the later site of the Leif Eiriksson statue. Guðjón continued his artistic interest and did some drawing and sculpture. The poet Þorsteinn Erlingsson noticed the boy and persuaded his parents to send him abroad for study. Carpenter Samúel Jónsson did not like the idea of his son's studying sculpture but agreed to have him take up architecture.

In Copenhagen Samúelsson studied for six years at the Academy and made good progress. He got along well with all his teachers except the noted architect Professor Nyrop, who designed Copenhagen's famed City Hall. The Professor found this young Icelander too stubbornly nationalistic in his art and not receptive enough to the strong Continental traditions. Later the two made up, and the Professor agreed that since Samúelsson was returning home to devote his energies to his own people, his attempts to adapt his style to Icelandic conditions were indeed commendable.

Upon his return, Samúelsson was immediately given large commissions. Among his first buildings were the office buildings of the Iceland Steamship Company and Reykjavíkur Apótek, still landmarks in downtown Reykjavík. These buildings and many others in this first period are definitely in the Continental style and one, the National Bank, was by request designed in the Renaissance palace style, more reminiscent of Florence than of the northern latitudes of Iceland.

Samúelsson soon began to experiment. One of his first ideas was to try to wed the ancient, multi-gabled farm style with concrete and other modern building materials. He wanted to preserve this Icelandic tradition and yet make the structures meet modern demands. The school at Laugarvatn is an outstanding example of this, and the tourist may also remember the



*A Government office building in Reykjavík*

little farmhouse at Þingvellir.

An interesting sidelight on this architectural experiment is the Catholic church in Reykjavík, still Iceland's largest church, although the country is almost entirely Lutheran. The Catholics wanted their church to be predominantly Gothic, and Samúelsson complied. But above the Gothic windows one can see a row of gables unmistakably reminiscent of the old farmhouses and, between these, columns in the shape of peculiarly Icelandic rock formations. The result is most interesting.

The attempt to merge old and new in this manner must, however, be deemed a failure, and Samúelsson soon abandoned it. The forms and shapes of the old farmhouses just did not lend themselves to the rational utilization of space demanded by modern architecture.

The next experimental phase in Samúelsson's architecture has been called the "rock style" and is again peculiarly Icelandic. This was a deliberate attempt to copy some of the forms and shapes of Iceland's volcanic nature in modern buildings. Often these forms were used as decorations, and the result was striking. Samúelsson claimed that Icelandic scenery is unique; that the lack of trees made the building sites open, frequently with barren mountains as backdrop. He felt there had to be harmony between the



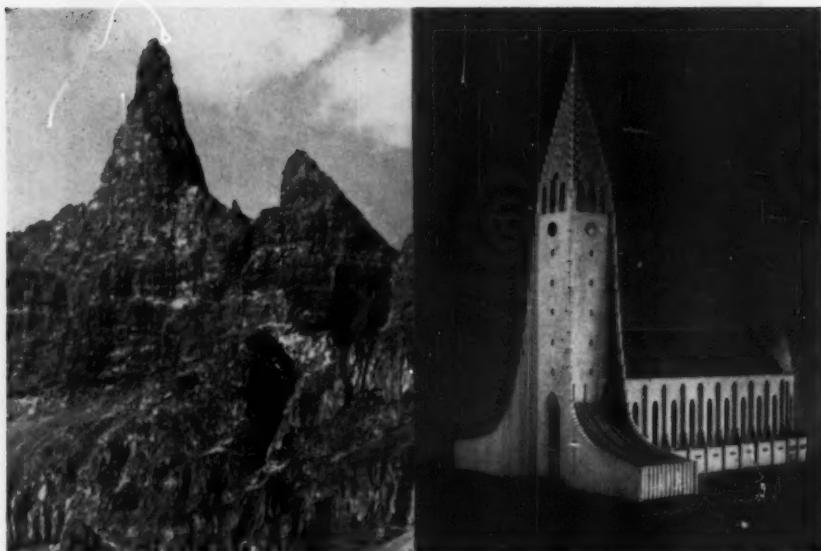
*Above:*

*The School at Laugarvatn.*  
This school represents an attempt by Guðjón Samúelsson to use modern materials while re-creating the ancient style of Icelandic farm buildings



*Left:*

*The Catholic Church  
in Reykjavik*



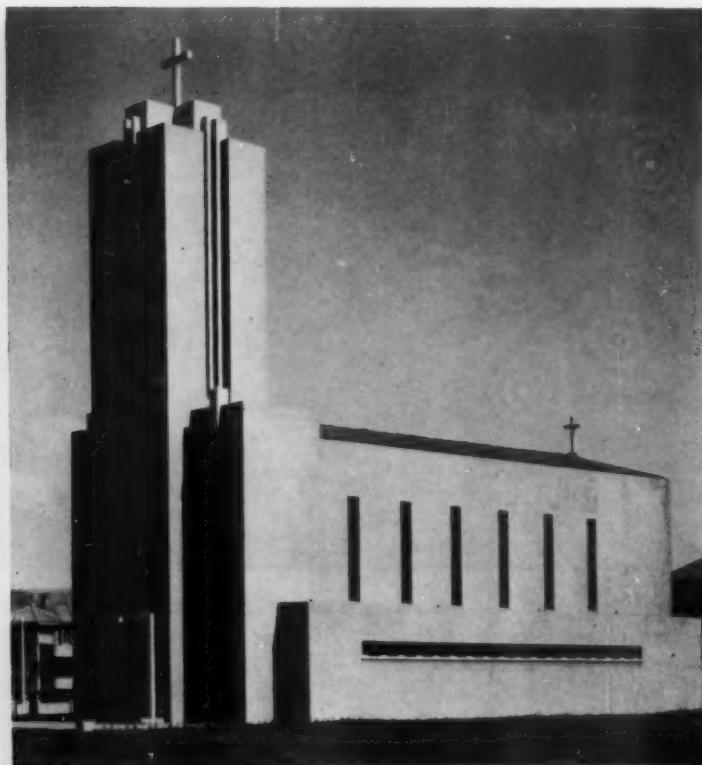
*Guðjón Samúelsson once pointed out that when he designed the still unfinished Hallgríms Church (model on the right) he was inspired by the Öxnadalur mountain peaks (on the left)*

buildings and their surroundings. He also wanted passionately to develop an "Icelandic" style of building, something peculiar for his country.

The National Theater in Reykjavík is a good example of this attempt. It is a large, dark, and heavy building. But that was the architect's intention. He designed it in the spirit of the Icelandic mountains, and his inspiration were the volcanic rock formations. He also had Icelandic folklore in mind—the old belief that inside the mountains the fairies lived in a wonderful world of warmth, light, and happiness. Thus Samúelsson made the interior of the theater a modern counterpart of the folklore' fairyland.

Another example of his nationalism is the still not built Hallgrímskirkja, "Hallgrím's Church," named after the famed religious poet. This structure was inspired by the peculiar mountain tops above Öxnadalur, the valley where poet Jónas Hallgrímsson was born. The picture of the church model and mountains shows a striking resemblance.

Samúelsson was the first Icelandic architect to use local materials for decorating and embellishing concrete buildings. An example of this is the main building of the University of Iceland, where silver, blue, and black

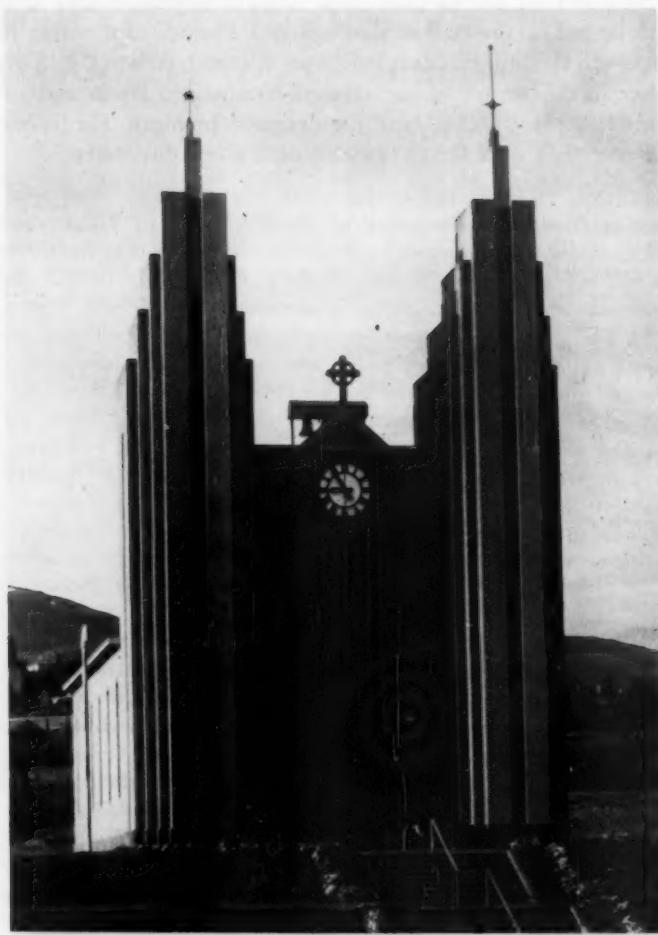


*The Laugarnes Church in Reykjavík*

colors are all effects created by crushed Icelandic stone—used here for the first time.

It is obvious that such experiments were not suitable for the more commonplace buildings, such as homes, ordinary schools, or office buildings. These effects Samúelsson tried to achieve only on his most beloved projects, buildings that were in some way linked to the national tradition of his country. In these attempts to give Iceland a truly national architecture and design for its most important public buildings he stands alone. His numerous successors follow more or less the international trends of their time.

Aside from these unique experiments, Samúelsson's designs became more and more "modern," by being utilitarian, simple, and light. His last school



*The church of Akureyri*

designs provided large windows and bright rooms. But he maintained dignity and never engaged in the more excessive departures of the younger men from traditional balance and form.

Through the years Samúelsson continued to live in the old framehouse built by his father in 1900. After his marriage proved a failure, he lived alone and devoted himself to his work and his second love, music. His

health became frail, but he continued to work tirelessly. One week before his death he was on the roof of the National Theater supervising the finishing touches to the building just before its opening. When the "fairy world" came alive in the theater he had created, Samúelsson lay mortally ill in the National Hospital (another building designed by him). He listened to the opening ceremony over the radio—and died a few days later.

*Benedikt Gröndal is a member of the Parliament of Iceland and an Editor of the Reykjavík daily "Alþýðublaðið." He also finds time to write articles for the "Review" on many aspects of Icelandic culture.*

## JAPANESE POEM

BY TÓMAS GUÐMUNDSSON

*Translated from the Icelandic by Einar Haugen*

Japan at dawn a gentle light diffuses  
Across the ocean depths beyond the bleaching sand;  
And youthful fellows thrust their boats from shore  
To dive for precious pearls beneath the wave.

But later, when the twilight bends across the shore,  
And gleaming wavelets rock beneath the sky,  
In moonbright, mild summer evenings,  
A song of love arises in the coral forests.

For while the young folk play among the blossoms,  
And lily wreaths are tied by happy lovers,  
With lightning-rapid darts the little fishes swim  
To little rendez-vous in billowed depths—

Their little gills with love and joy a-twitter,  
While in the moonlight, kelp and seashells glitter.

# NORWAY'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE INTERNATIONAL GEOPHYSICAL YEAR

BY ANDERS K. ORVIN

DURING both the First and the Second Polar Years (1882-83 and 1932-33) many nations took part in geophysical observations in the Arctic, but, despite the work done at that time, many important problems remained unsolved. Therefore, when the British physicist and Nobel-Prize-winner Sir Edward Appleton after the last war proposed the organization of an International Geophysical Year in 1957-58, his plan received world-wide support. This time the Antarctic was also to be included, and a number of scientific stations were built on that continent by no less than twelve nations.

The International Geophysical Year began on July 1, 1957, and was terminated on December 31, 1958. It is still too early, however, to reach any definite conclusions about the scientific results, since it will take a long time to evaluate and work up the material collected. This article will indicate some of Norway's contributions to the IGY; we will deal chiefly with the work done by Norwegians in the Antarctic, but will first mention the activities of the stations in Norway and Svalbard.

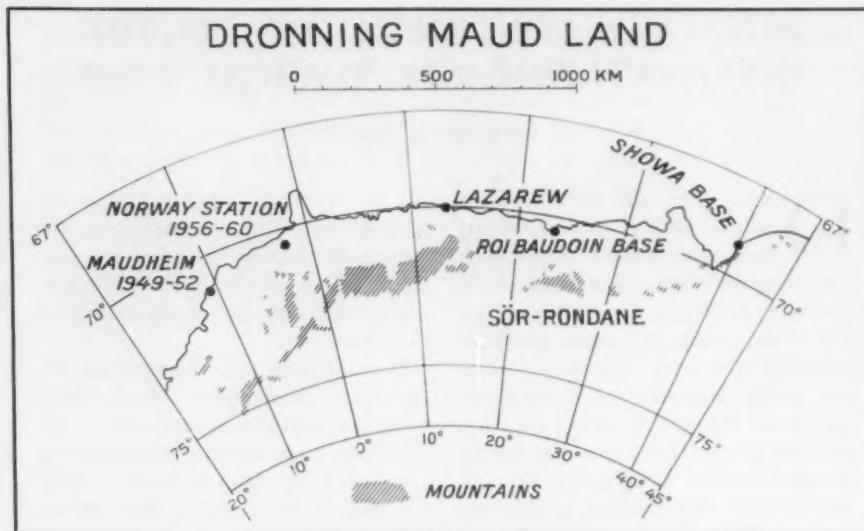
Norwegian scientists were fortunate in already possessing a number of scientific stations in Norway proper, in Svalbard, and on the island of Jan Mayen, in addition to which it was decided to establish a base in Queen Maud Land on the Antarctic continent. About 25 Norwegian stations in all took part in the work; three of these

are in Svalbard (Isfjord Radio, Ny-Alesund, and Bear Island), one on Jan Mayen, the Norway Station in the Antarctic, Ocean Station "M" in the Norwegian Sea, with the remainder located in Norway.

In accordance with the program the following observations were made: Aurora observations were made by parallactic measurements of height over a system of base-lines in southern Norway and at the Auroral Observatory, Tromsø, where also an all-sky camera was in operation in connection with the net of Swedish cameras. Spectroscopic observations of aurora were carried out by Professor L. Vegard in Oslo and in Tromsø by means of spectrographs of high light power. Observations of cosmic rays were made at the University of Bergen, and in Tromsø. And observations of geomagnetism (variations in D, H, and V) were recorded at Tromsø, Bjørnøya and Domås.

As to ionospheric physics, sweep-frequency vertical incidence soundings were made at Kjeller, Tromsø, and Longyearbyen. Absorption measurements and measurements of the drift of the E-layer, using 2 Mc/S, were made at Kjeller and Tromsø. Scintillation records on 45 Mc/S, using the Cassiopeia source, were made at Tromsø. The measurements of absorption, drift and scintillation are being conducted by the Norwegian Defense Research Establishment at Kjeller.

Oceanographic work has been conducted in the North Atlantic Ocean at



Outline map of Queen Maud Land, showing the location of Norway Station and other bases as well as the South Rondane mountains.

about 50° Lat. N. and 35° Long. W., being the second link in a series of undertakings, the first of which was carried out by the *Discovery II* and the Norwegian ship *Armauer Hansen* in the Norwegian Sea in May, 1956.

At the Solar Observatory, Harestua near Oslo, the solar radio noise emission on 200 Mc/S has been recorded continuously. The research in solar activity is being conducted by the Astrophysical Institute, University of Oslo, by Professor R. Rosseland. Ozone observations have been made at Tromsø, using a Dobson spectrophotometer. They are being conducted by the Aurora Observatory there.

25 aerological stations have taken part in the meteorological program near the earth's surface. Synoptic and regular radiosonde/radiowind observa-

tions were made with the Moll-Gorzin-ski solarigraph, the Angström pyrheliometer and pyrgeometer, and the Campbell-Stokes autograph. The regular radiosonde/radiowind observations were made at Gardermoen, Ørlandet, Bodø, Isfjord Radio, Jan Mayen, Bjørnøya, and Ocean Station "M", and regular radiosonde observations at Sola and Skattøra. The radiosonde consists of a small balloon, to which are attached instruments for measurements of air pressure and temperature. The results are sent down by means of a small radio transmitter. And sun-radiation measurements were made at fifteen stations in Norway and Svalbard.

In addition to the above mentioned observations the personnel at Norway Station in the Antarctic have carried out meteorological observations, includ-



Norwegian Polar Institute

Norway Station in Queen Maud Land

ing radiosonde, radiation measurements, ozone measurements with the Dobson spectro-photometer, geomagnetic measurements with normal records of D, H, and V with a la Cour magnetograph, and parallactic auroral photography with an all-sky camera of the Stoffregen type. Further glaciological and topographical work, including triangulation and aerial photogrammetry, has been carried out in the area extending from the Norway Station to  $30^{\circ} 30'$  Long. E.

As the Norwegian IGY station in the Antarctic has been of particular interest, the work there will be described in greater detail. The Norwegian station, however, is not the only one in Queen Maud Land. Three other stations have been erected: the Soviet-Russian Lazarev station on about  $13^{\circ}$  Long. E., the Belgian Roi Baudoin Base on about  $23^{\circ}$  Long. E., and the Japanese base Showa on nearly  $40^{\circ}$

Long. E. All three of these stations will probably continue their work into 1960.

Queen Maud Land is a part of the Antarctic continent lying between  $20^{\circ}$  Long. W. and  $45^{\circ}$  Long. E. Reaching from the sea as far as the South Pole, this sector was annexed by the Norwegian Government in 1939. Until then only some Norwegian expeditions, sent out by Lars Christensen, and the German *Schwabenland* expedition had visited this coast and mapped parts of the land. Later some areas were photographed from the air by Admiral Byrd's expedition of 1946-47.

The first expedition to winter there was the Norwegian-British-Swedish Scientific Expedition to the Antarctic of 1949-52, which established its base "Maudheim" on the ice shelf at about  $11^{\circ}$  Long. W. From here mapping was undertaken by triangulation on the ground and by air photographs to

about  $30^{\circ}$  Long. E. Among other work done was the measurement of the ice thickness far inland by echo sounder.

When the Norwegian authorities had decided to take part in the IGY work in the Antarctic, two Norwegian sealers, the *Polarsirkel* of Tromsø and the *Polarbjørn* of Brandal near Alesund, were sent south with fourteen men under the leadership of Sigurd Helle, a geodesist with the Norwegian Polar Institute, which organized and sent out the expedition. On board were all material and equipment necessary for the wintering, such as houses, tractors, provisions, scientific instruments, polar outfit, gasoline, oil, 44 Greenland dogs, etc.

The ships left Oslo on November 10, 1956, called at Las Palmas, Montevideo, and Husvik Harbour, South Georgia, and reached the ice barrier at about  $6^{\circ}$  Long. W. on December 30.

According to the international plans the new station should have been placed at about  $10^{\circ}$  Long. E., but the ice conditions east of  $0^{\circ}$  being very unfavorable, the station was erected at  $70^{\circ}30' S.$  and  $2^{\circ}32' W.$  on the ice shelf about 36 kilometers from the sea and 56 meters above sea-level. The vessels left on January 20. The transportation of equipment up to the base site was greatly hampered by storm and drifting snow, and it took the men two months to complete the buildings and make all installations. Radio operation started on March 11, 1957.

The station is built as follows: In a north-south direction about 1000 equipment cases form a passage, ca. 60 meters long. Tarpaulins were placed so as to cover the cases and the passage between them which is lighted by electric lamps. The radio and meteorological rooms are situated on the north side of the

passage. Here is also the medical outfit. Farther south are the mess and the pantry, etc. A separate house contains a bedroom for each member of the expedition. The two houses first mentioned are 7.2 by 7.2 meters, the last one 7.2 by 10.82 meters. There are also a garage, a small room for snow melting, a house with two motor dynamoës, each of 14 kilowatts, and a workshop. All these houses are under one roof, enabling the men to communicate with each other without going out in open air. Some of the houses have no opening on to the passage, as the balloon house, the Rawin house, the hut for magnetic observations, the instrument screen, and the house for aurora australis photography. There is also a 26-meter high tower of tubular steel construction, with meteorological instruments. At the top of the tower there is a red lamp for guidance during the dark months and in snowy weather. At the entrance to the passage there is a white lamp, and from here to most of the surface buildings a rope is stretched to serve during storms and poor visibility. The radio masts are 8-20 meters high, each of them carrying three sets of guys and a number of antennas in all directions.

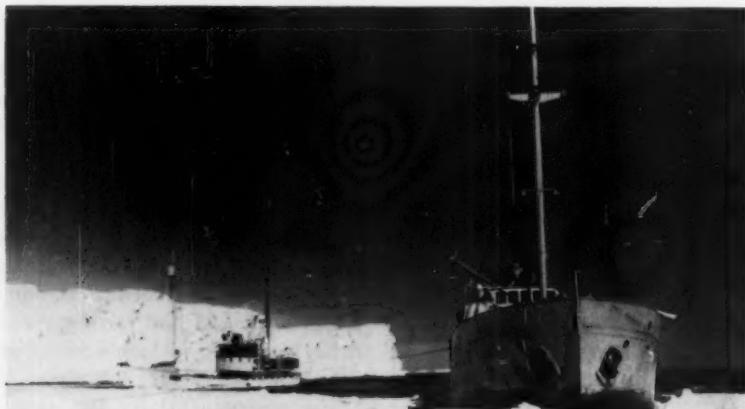
The general meteorological observations began in March, 1957, magnetic observations in April, and the first parallactic photographs of aurora australis were taken on September 19 from the base and subsidiary hut at the barrier, 40 kilometers from the main base. The first radiosonde balloon was launched on June 9, and after July 1 the entire program was in operation.

The radio operators were in regular communication with other IGY stations and in direct contact with Bergen



*Norsk Polarinstitutt*

*Transporting goods by tractor to Norway Station*



*Norsk Polarinstitutt*

*"Polarbjørn" (on the left) and "Polarsirkel" unloading cargoes near Norway Station in Queen Maud Land*



Norsk Polarinstitutt

*Making measurements with a tellurometer in Queen Maud Land*

Radio, Norway. Twice a day the meteorological observations were sent to the Australian station at Mawson, for further transmission.

On November 22, 1957, four men started out with two diesel tractors, six sledges, and two dog teams on an inland expedition to survey the mountain region eastward from about  $3^{\circ}$  Long. E. It was heavy going in deep, loose snow, and they reached the nearest mountains at about  $71^{\circ}50' S.$  and  $3^{\circ}30' Long. E.$  on January 15, 1958, after having lost one of the tractors in a crevasse. Here they laid down a depot, from where they made trips with dog sleds, made astronomical determination of points, measured base-lines, carried out magnetic observations and glaciological work. They returned to the depot on April 4, and to the Norway Station on

April 18, without further mishaps.

In the autumn of 1957 the Norwegian Polar Institute chartered the sealer *Tottan* of Tønsberg, in cooperation with the Royal Society of London, for a relief expedition to the Norway Station and Haley Bay. *Tottan* left Tønsberg on November 11, Southampton on the 16th, called at South Georgia and reached the Norway Station on December 25. Three members of the expedition embarked for Norway, while three new members debarked. After having called at Haley Bay the ship returned home over South Georgia and Las Palmas, where the three expedition members went ashore, whereas the ship proceeded to Halifax for seal hunting.

In August, 1958, the Norwegian Government decided to continue the work at the Norway Station through 1959 as



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*Expedition members were greatly aided both by their dogs and their two Otter aircraft*

well. It was also decided to undertake mapping and aerial photography in the Antarctic summer of 1958-59. For the expedition 1958-59 the Norwegian Polar Institute chartered the Norwegian sealer *Polarbjørn* (ex *Jopeter*). The smaller *Polarbjørn* which was used in 1956-57, went down in the Greenland ice in 1957.

The ship left Oslo on November 1 with five men for the wintering party; it called at Cape Town on November 27 for bunkers and provisions, and reached the barrier at the Norway Station on December 21, without being seriously hampered by the ice.

Two Otter planes with a personnel of nine had been placed at the disposal of the Institute by the Royal Norwegian Air Force, under command of

Major Gudmund Odden. The men had been trained in advance in the Jotunheimen mountains in Norway during the winter. Bernhard Luncke, topographer with the Norwegian Polar Institute, was leader of the expedition and photographer. The party chose a bay about 10 kilometers from the landing place earlier used, and named it Otterbukta (Otter Bay), put up a house there and made a runway by means of a Muskeg tractor. On December 25 the two planes had their first flight. Both planes were equipped with cameras for oblique photography.

Already on November 7, two men had left the Norway Station with dog teams to continue glaciological work in the mountain region, where they had been at work during the preceding year.



Norsk Polarinstitutt

*The Christmas 1957 celebration at Norway Station*

Three others were taken to the depot near Gruberfjellet by one of the Otters, and continued topographical work on the ground, eastwards to the Wohlthat Massif and Forposten.

Since it was impossible to advance as far east as South Rondane without filling gasoline from depots, such were laid down by one of the airplanes in a number of localities, and as far east as about  $22^{\circ}$  Long. E. By this procedure one was enabled to take aerial photos of the country as far as  $30^{\circ}30'$  Long. E. One man was landed in South Rondane, where he determined latitude and longitude of a point, measured a base-line and made triangulation work.

The topographical work continued in the field until January 26. By then 3,000 aerial photographs had been taken between  $0^{\circ}$  and  $30^{\circ}1/2$  Long. E., a distance of more than 1,000 kilo-

meters, and the ice barrier had been photographed from Otterbukta eastwards to  $13^{\circ}$  Long. E. and westwards to Cape Norvegia. A distance of about 36,000 kilometers was covered in all. The topographical work done in this short period exceeded all our expectations. This result was partly due to the rather favorable weather, with clear sky prevailing during the mapping, but also due to the careful planning and efficiency displayed throughout.

On January 31, 1959, the *Polarbjørn* left for Norway. On board were ten members of the wintering staff. Sigurd Helle stayed on as leader of the party during the third antarctic winter. The nine men wintering at the Norway Station during 1959 were recently taken home with the *Polarbjørn*. The ship left Alesund in Norway on October 30, 1959, called at Cape Town November

28-December 3, and took on board supplies for the South-African expedition which was to take over Norway Station. 21 South-Africans and Rear Admiral Steven Mandarich, who took part as observer from the U.S., embarked. Owing to heavy ice the ship did not reach the barrier at Norway Station until January 8, 1960. After having unloaded, the ship sailed on January 15,

leaving behind 10 South-Africans under the leadership of Hannes la Grange.

What remains for us now is to construct the maps and work up the scientific material. As far as the Norwegian observations in Queen Maud Land are concerned, this task will require at least two or three years following the return of the last wintering party.

*Dr. Anders K. Orvin, in his capacity of Director of the Norwegian Polar Institute, directed Norway's participation in the International-Geophysical-Year Program. Last year he was one of Norway's representatives to the conference in Washington which formulated the new international treaty regarding the Antarctic.*



## BRINGING UP CHILDREN BILINGUALLY

BY GEORGE O. TOTTEN

WHEN people hear that my wife and I, both of us born in America, are bringing up our children bilingually, with Swedish and English, most of them think it is a wonderful idea. There is, however, a small minority who claim this might somehow hinder a child's development, but this opinion is not generally held to be valid. On the contrary, learning two languages is thought to confer many benefits. And it is therefore our hope that many Americans with some foreign background who have or expect children may want to know how we have done it.

It is easy to write up a recipe for some exotic dish. You just list the ingredients and describe the process of preparation and cooking. But in bringing up children to speak another language, you have to take into account the special conditions in each family. I will describe our experience as one case, but will try to point out at the same time the general requirements and problems.

The first question, of course, is whether it is worth-while having a second language in the home. What good is it? In the case of French, German, Spanish, or Russian it is obvious that it could greatly help the child in school and college. But what about a language like Swedish, which only eight million Swedes speak and which is taught in relatively few American schools? From my own experience I would say that it brings cultural enrichment, family solidarity, a greater appreciation of

American and world culture, and an almost inexpressible satisfaction. Language is not an end in itself but a vehicle for becoming part of another people and thereby becoming a bigger person. Furthermore, acquiring a language in childhood is the only painless way of avoiding the agonizing hours of repeating infantile phrases when beginning the study of a foreign language as an adult. Besides, childhood is about the only time when most of us can learn another language without a tell-tale American accent.

A point that should be emphasized here is that learning another language does not reduce one's ability in one's native tongue. Linguists agree that each new language you learn makes it easier to learn another, but most people do not understand this. Command of another tongue makes one more sensitive to nuances and more aware of how to manipulate language as such, including one's own. A case in point is Carl Sandburg, who learned Swedish in his childhood. Our own experience also serves to bear this out. When registering our older daughter, Vicki, in kindergarten, my wife was asked what language was spoken at home. When she replied "Swedish", the registrar started to write down, "Weak in English". Actually, a reading readiness test we had just given to Vicki showed that her vocabulary and grasp of English were far superior to those of most children in her age group. Although she has above average intelligence, we have reason to believe that knowing

Swedish "synonyms" for most of her English words also increases her English vocabulary.

Many of our acquaintances from bilingual households make no attempt to pass on their second languages to their children. Because they acquired it painlessly some of them are really unaware of how hard it is to learn a language when they are older. Others are trying to escape their foreign background under what is to my mind the erroneous assumption that they are thereby becoming better Americans. But they only become narrower Americans. Others are too cowed by their children and shut up like clams when their children shout at them, "Don't talk that funny talk!"

The ways in which my wife and I acquired our Swedish in childhood are relevant to our decision to bring up our children bilingually. My wife's background is less unusual than mine. Both of her parents were among the last wave of Swedish emigrants to Minnesota, and she grew up in the small town of Warren where at that time most of the neighbors spoke Swedish and the minister preached in that language. In the last decade, of course, this has almost entirely changed. You have to tune in Chicago for a Swedish sermon, and my wife's mother speaks English to most of her acquaintances now. Astrid's next younger sister is less fluent in Swedish, and her youngest one (now in graduate school) refuses to say a word in Swedish though her comprehension even in written Swedish is good. This is a typical pattern in the "great melting pot". Too many of the vitamins are boiled out.

My wife Astrid is now a rarity even for a blonde, blue-eyed second-genera-

tion Swedish-American. Her Swedish is fluent. Her mother's decision to use only Swedish at home was based on her desire to have her daughter speak perfect English! She reasoned that since she knew English so poorly, but Swedish perfectly, she would speak Swedish at home and let the public school environment teach her daughter English. A trip to Sweden for a year when Astrid was five and six cemented her Swedish in the language-learning years. The first grade in school took care of her "American". As a result Astrid speaks both languages without an accent, unlike a number of second- and even third-generation Swedish-Americans, who know only a few words of Swedish. While Astrid was learning to read English in school, her mother sat down with her now and then and pointed out the different sound values of the alphabet in Swedish. With the beckoning wealth of Swedish books at home, from the classics to modern magazines, Astrid has grown up with Swedish literature.

That I speak Swedish is more unusual, because my father, an American of many generations, never learned a word of Swedish. My Swedish background came through my mother who met and married my father while she was on a tour of the United States with an exhibit of her sculpture. Being born and brought up in Washington, D.C., where there was no Swedish community, I heard Swedish only from Swedish visitors at our home. I first got a basis in Swedish during a summer spent in Sweden when I was just turning eight. After that, although we had a Swedish cook for a time, my opportunities for talking Swedish were few and far between.

Since the common bond of a Swedish background was one of the factors that brought my wife and me together in the first place, I made an attempt to improve my Swedish and bring it up to an adult level. I bought a grammar to study before we took a belated honeymoon to Sweden to visit our countless relatives. Later I sat in on a Swedish course and thus I was somewhat linguistically prepared when our daughter Vicken began to learn to talk.

To begin with I was very skeptical that we could ever get her to speak Swedish in an American milieu with no Swedish playmates. It was thus a great thrill when she began to prattle and things came out in Swedish. It made me really conscious of how important and powerful a parent is in the life of a little child. All those Swedish words came from no one else but Astrid and me.

Soon, however, we got reinforcements. Little Vicken began to visit Astrid's parents for part of each summer in Minnesota. Since there were practically no local playmates in her age group, Vicken heard only Swedish for long periods. Later, when Vicken was three, an aunt of mine from Sweden came to stay with us for a couple of months. She could hardly speak any English and Vicken felt important and useful in translating for her when necessary. Later again, a cousin of Astrid's also visited us from Sweden accompanied by her mother who knew not a word of English. These visits had the effect of convincing Vicken that Swedish was of some use and that somewhere far off everybody spoke Swedish even on the streets!

When Vicken was only one year old, I sent to Sweden for a catalogue of

children's books. I ordered Einar Nehrman's *Gubbar i rim* and the treasury of children's poems and stories, *Min skattkammare*. Vicken loved to be read to; so reading to her in Swedish combined her motivation with the learning process. As a result she knows most of these children's verses by heart. Since they are something which Swedes have much more in common than we have Mother Goose rhymes, Vicken now has a cultural bond which will always be a source of pleasure, and she can in time pass on to her children at least two cultures.

We have built up a sizable library of children's books of all sorts, from Elsa Beskow's old-fashioned *Puttes äventyr i blåbärskogen* to Astrid Lindgren's high-wide-and-handsome *Pippi Långstrump*. Vicken has almost as many Swedish as English books. For a while I would translate English books into Swedish as I read, but soon Vicken learned which were written in which language and would insist on their being read in the original.

All this reading of children's books out loud in Swedish has been wonderful for my Swedish in developing a vocabulary, in fluency and command of the idiom. At the same time I read adult novels in Swedish to myself for pleasure, eschewing a dictionary as much as possible, because I do not want learning Swedish to be at all like work or study.

Have we then had no problems?

The answer cannot be given as an unqualified "yes," but the qualifications have mainly to do with self-discipline, the mixing of languages, and cultural attitudes. Self-discipline is undoubtedly the biggest. It was definitely strange for Astrid and me to start talk-

ing Swedish with each other. Then, keeping it up day after day was hard. But eventually it became a habit. With the children, one runs into the problem of continually reminding them to speak Swedish without having to resort to nagging. But it can be done. The children will go through one or more phases of resistance. At those points it is best to remember that you know more about the world than the child does and can make a better judgment about the value of a second language than he can.

Mixing languages occurs when a young child is learning two languages simultaneously. At first Vicken heard only Swedish from us, but of course only English from her playmates. She would, as a consequence, tend to mix her languages, saying such things as: "Jag vill ha ett glas water"; "Jag vill get ner"; "Jag vill ha ved att bygga ett hus, för jag vill spela hus." Or with her playmates, "I don't want to *slip* going along," and so forth. Some parents would be horrified at this. Actually, little children experience no frustrations on this score. They know you speak in a certain way to certain people and in another to others. It never bothered her playmates when Vicken used a Swedish word. Either she would find out what the others called the thing or else all the children would adopt the Swedish word. One amusing incident occurred when we were living in an apartment house. Vicken always called me "Pappa," whereas the other children called their fathers "Daddy". Soon I was called "Pappa" by all the children in the building. I guess they thought that was my name. It was just a bit embarrassing when I would appear in the park and children from

several different mothers would come running up to me calling "Pappa"!

As a child grows older he comes to distinguish between languages and this problem disappears. Accents do not disappear so easily. But we had no problem about that, since Vicken heard both American and Swedish words in their proper pronunciation (at least from her mother), not accented English spoken by a foreign-born.

A greater problem for more people has to do with cultural attitudes. Very often I meet second-generation Polish-, Italian-, Japanese-, or even Swedish-Americans who have rebelled against speaking the language of their parents because they associate that language with a lower social status. Children can pick up such attitudes even before grade school. They soon form a desire to dissociate themselves from their cultural background in order to conform more closely to what they conceive to be the "100% American" types around them. This happens mostly where there is a minority community. When a child gets the idea that his cultural heritage is somehow "inferior," it may take some skillful education at home to convince him that his background is something to be proud of. It is difficult to keep from going to the other extreme and implanting the equally pernicious idea that his heritage is "superior." In our case, there is no minority problem. Our little "indoctrination" at home has so far succeeded in making Swedish something "special", something that is fun and desirable. Other children come over and say they want to learn Swedish, too.

Since Astrid and I have had so much initial success with our two little daughters, we would like to recommend to all

bilinguals who have or are about to have children that they take a little pain to pass on to their children the wonderful gift of a second language. Generalizing from our own experience and that of friends of ours, the recipe might run something like this:

(1) Choose a language which either or both parents speak without an accent. We know of a Pole whose American wife speaks no Polish but who addresses their child only in Polish. To help the situation, they have decided to get a Polish maid. If one parent is weak in the second language (such as having learned French in high school and thus having no household vocabulary), he can learn along with and a little ahead of the child. He should supplement learning from his spouse with some self-study and as much reading for pleasure as possible, both aloud for the child and on a more adult level to himself. The child will tend to acquire the accent of the more fluent parent.

(2) The process can be begun at almost any age, but the younger the better. I know of a very successful White Russian couple who decided, when their children were ten and twelve, that they should know Russian. They

just made it a rule that at the dinner table no conversation was permitted except in Russian. It is a good idea to have a core time and place for conversing in the second language. One must also have the authority and self-discipline to overcome the resistance phase, which may come early in older children and late in younger ones.

(3) Outside stimuli should be used wherever convenient. A variety of interesting reading matter in the second language should be supplemented by a record collection of songs and stories as an aid in learning things by heart in a perfect accent. Grandparents who still retain a command of the second language should help with the teaching of the grandchildren. One should make a special effort to have the children meet any guests who speak the language. Correspondence in the language can be begun with relatives or new foreign friends. Joining any relevant foreign singing, folk dancing, or other cultural groups is educational fun. And all this prepares for the best stimulus of all — a trip to the "old country", with its many new impressions and experiences and its unequaled opportunities for putting one's second language to good use.

*George O. Totten is Assistant Professor of Government at Boston University. Although he has learned Chinese and Japanese in the course of his specialization on Asia, he has held fast to his Swedish heritage. His mother, Vicki von Post, was a Swedish sculptress who became internationally known for her porcelain figurines.*

## FYRKAT: A VIKING CAMP IN JUTLAND

BY OLAF OLSEN

After seven years of excavations and reconstruction work the viking camp at Fyrkat in the Danish peninsula of Jutland was officially opened by King Frederik IX on June 14, 1959. The people of Denmark and foreign visitors can now inspect and admire one of the most impressive fortifications that remain from the viking period in Scandinavia.

Fyrkat is situated in a glacial river valley two miles west of the old town of Hobro. It is a viking camp of a special type which is as yet known only in Denmark. This kind of camp was discovered for the first time by Poul Nørlund at the excavation of the earthwork of Trelleborg in Sjælland in the 1930's. Since then, three similar sites have been found: Aggersborg by the Limfjord in North Jutland, Nonnebakken in Odense, and now Fyrkat. These three were all excavated by the well-known archeologist C. G. Schultz, who died in 1958 while the diggings at Fyrkat were nearing completion.

These four encampments are built according to a strict geometric scheme which is followed with the utmost precision. They all consist of a circular area surrounded by a rampart and ditch. Four gates pierce the rampart at the four points of the compass. Two roads run as straight as arrows from the north gate to the south gate and from the east gate to the west gate respectively. They cross each other at the center of the camp and divide the site into four equal parts. In each of these quarters there is a block consist-

ing of four large identical wooden houses which enclose a square courtyard (in the larger camp of Aggersborg there are three blocks in each of the quarters). The houses all possess the same ground plan with curved longitudinal walls and straight gable ends, and their interior divisions are all identical. The Roman foot of 11.65 inches, not the "Norse" 13-inch foot, is the unit of measurement employed throughout.

The weakest part of the defense work at Fyrkat is the ditch. It follows the circular rampart at a distance of ca. 10.5 meters but is only found on the high-lying land outside the northeastern and western part of the rampart. The ditch is barely as deep as the height of a man and its defense value must have been almost negligible.

On the other hand, no effort was spared in the construction of the circular rampart. Its present appearance as a grass-covered earthwork with sloping sides and narrow top is due to the efforts of the National Museum and is only meant as an indication of the position and height of the original rampart. This looked utterly different, and above all must have resembled a vast, earth-filled wooden crate. The excavation revealed its complicated structure (Fig. 2). The earthen mass of the rampart consisted for the most part of piled-up pieces of turf. The inner diameter of the rampart was 120 meters, it was 12 meters thick and probably about 3 meters in height, the breastwork not included.



Fig. 1.

*A view of the excavations at the viking camp at Fyrkat*

The four gateways were roofed over and appeared as narrow tunnels through the rampart. This covering connected the four sections of the rampart which could therefore be defended as one.

The sixteen large houses of the site are 28.5 meters long, equivalent to 96 Roman feet. The width of the houses is 7.5 meters across the middle and ca. 5 meters at the gable ends. The houses were constructed in a mixture of the bole-house and the wattle-and-daub techniques: the gable ends usually with horizontal planks, the curved longitudinal walls of clay daubed wattle kept in position between rows of double posts. An outer row of slightly slanting posts follows the walls of the houses

at a distance of about a meter. The primary function of these posts must have been to support the walls proper.

However, the main weight of the large roof was not carried by the walls, but by four solid posts inside the house. These posts, which were dug into the earth up to a meter in depth, also served as part of the two transverse partitions, which divided the houses into three rooms; a small room at each of the gable ends and a large hall—over 18 meters long—between them. It is not certain for what purpose the rooms at the gable ends were used, but the hall was undoubtedly the living and sleeping quarters. A number of houses showed traces of a large hearth in the middle of the hall, and along

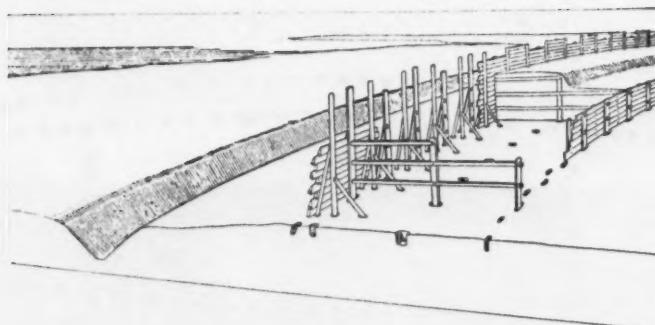


Fig. 2.

*The timber skeleton of the Aggersborg ramparts, as reconstructed by C. G. Schultz. The circular ramparts of Fyrkat were constructed in the same manner, except that the outer slope (escarpment) was covered by palisades instead of the horizontal planks shown here.*

the walls there were probably broad sleeping benches. At least fifty men could sleep in each hall without conditions becoming too cramped.

It is by no means certain that all the houses were used as dwellings. In the eastern house of the southeasterly block there appears to have been a smith's workshop, and the southern house in the same block had no hearth in the hall, but contained considerable remains of grain and has possibly served as a storage room.

Each house has four outer doors, one at each gable end and one in each longitudinal wall. The doorways are easily recognizable by the oblong post-holes of the door-jambs. The side-doors both lead into the hall near the inner partitions and they are always diagonally situated to each other. In the houses which lie along the axial roads, the door facing the street is never placed opposite that of the corresponding house on the other side of the road. This avoided any collision between the

inhabitants of the two houses in an emergency turn-out.

The side-doors of the Fyrkat houses all have porches in front. When the doors face out towards the road, the porches are small and open, but those into the courtyards and facing the rampart are of considerable size and resemble church porches.

In the enclosed courtyards in the northwestern and southeastern blocks there are small rectangular houses with hearths. At the eastern gateway there is also a little house, presumably for the guard, and a similar one lies outside the western gate. There are also presumably small houses in the not yet excavated courtyard of the northeastern block and in the southwestern quarter of the camp, which has been left completely untouched for the purpose of leaving evidence for archeological research at some future date.

The road system consists partly of the straight roads between the gates and partly of a circular road which runs



Fig. 3.

*Plan of the northernmost house in the northeastern block.*

just inside the rampart. All the roads were paved with wooden planks which rested on joists lying in a longitudinal direction. The joists were kept in position by wooden pegs.

The vikings had their cemetery on the protected part of a naze northeast of the camp. So far 23 burials have been excavated. Pagan burials rich in grave goods—marked on the surface by a small hearth, where the ritual fire was burned—lie here, side by side with Christian burials containing nothing apart from the deceased. In two of the richest pagan graves, the bodies were laid in wagon frames. A wide road, laid with planks, runs across the cemetery and over a distance of ca. 14 meters it broadens to form a small platform. The religious rites of the funerals probably took place here.

An urban community would never have been able to adapt itself to the strict plans that were followed during the construction of the camp, and which also must have affected the daily

life within the rampart. Fyrkat is definitely a military site, a barrack with order and discipline, precision and regimentation.

It is possible to date Fyrkat, with the aid of the objects found, to the last decades of the tenth century or the beginning of the eleventh century. The three other camps of the Trelleborg type belong to the same period. And at that time only one person, the king, could instigate such a colossal task. The camps are therefore either the work of Harald Bluetooth or his son Svend Forkbeard, who dethroned his aging father in ca. 985 A. D. They probably served as winter barracks or training camps for Svend Forkbeard's viking army. From the beginning of the 990's and during the course of twenty years, this militant king organized incessant viking raids on a weak and disrupted England. The vikings were tempted by the vast taxes they could extort, the so-called *Danegeld*, which the English far too willingly supplied to the viking

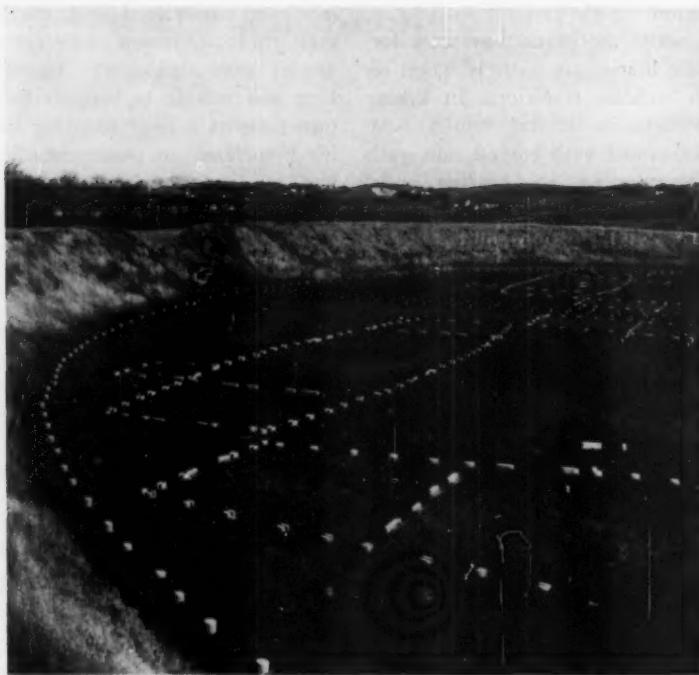


Fig. 4.

fleets in order to avoid plunder and violence.

On the other hand, it should not be forgotten that the four viking camps were more than just barracks. They were also strong fortresses, all situated in strategic locations throughout the country. Therefore it is not unreasonable to assume that they also served an internal purpose. Without the full control of his unruly homeland, King Svend could scarcely have carried out the large-scale campaigns which finally gave him the crown of England in the year 1013 A. D.

The clearly defined plan of the viking camps, the well thought out de-

tails, and the incomparable precision of their construction must be the fruition of centuries of experience in the art of fortification. However, only little of what is known about Denmark in the Viking Age points towards these camps. They come suddenly. Therefore one has sought their prototype abroad: in the geometric Roman camps, the remains of which the vikings could study in England and in the large fortified towns of the Near East. This question is extremely complicated and probably cannot be answered until future excavations in Denmark and elsewhere have added to our knowledge of the military building and construction of

the period.

But while the plans may seem foreign, the houses are entirely based on Danish building traditions. In Viking Age settlements several houses have been excavated with curved side walls and free-standing, roof-bearing posts. It is this house type which is encountered in the viking camps, built with a precision which was never attempted in the villages.

Fyrkat was not in existence for long. It was destroyed by fire perhaps even during the lifetime of Svend Forkbeard. It is not possible to determine whether the fire occurred during battle or whether it was caused by accident. Indeed, the danger of fire was ever present owing to the compactness of the buildings within the rampart.

Fyrkat was never rebuilt. When Eng-

land was conquered and the viking raids gradually ceased, the large viking armies were disbanded. The Danish king was unable to support from his own treasury a large standing army in his homeland; in peacetime the king had to depend on his housecarls, a modest number of elite soldiers who guarded his estate and escorted him during his travels throughout the land.

A camp the size of Fyrkat was far too large for the housecarls alone; even at full strength they could scarcely effectively defend the ramparts. Under these circumstances the viking camps were no more of any use. The camps vanished as abruptly as they had arisen a few decades earlier. Historical development made these magnificently built and splendidly fortified fortresses obsolete long before they were old.

*Olaf Olsen is an Inspector at the National Museum in Copenhagen and has been in charge of the excavations at Fyrkat. He is the author of the booklet, "Fyrkat. The Viking Camp Near Hobro", which was published by the National Museum and which he has summarized in the above article.*

# PAUL CHRISTIAN SINDING

*An Early Scandinavian-American Historian*

By OSCAR J. FALNES

**I**N THE MIDDLE decades of the nineteenth century, American academic and literary circles developed a lively interest in Scandinavian literature, life, and history. At first, strong impulses from the current of Romanticism helped direct the attention of Anglo-Saxon as well as German cultural leaders to the Old Norse period, with its Eddas and sagas, and the breath-taking exploits of viking days. In the third quarter of the century, the interest expanded to include the new realism in northern literature, becoming associated with the names of Bjørnson and Ibsen, and later with Strindberg and others. This interest then contracted somewhat, save in one field—that of the bearing the Norse traditions had on the story of America's discovery. Otherwise it became, for non-Scandinavian scholars, an increasingly specialized aspect of their diligent literary and philological studies in Anglo-Saxon and Old Germanic culture.

As for the Scandinavian-American immigrant, he had little to contribute to the nineteenth-century vogue of interest in the Northern cultural heritage. The stream of Scandinavian immigration was barely started in the 'forties and only took on in volume from the later 'sixties to the 'eighties. During this first generation, the Scandinavian immigrant, as immigrants generally, had other matters to engage him—he must take root in the new society and assimilate himself into the American

scene. Only by the last quarter of the century did he begin seriously to share in the cultivation of interest in his own European heritage. And then his concern at times, understandably, was moved as much by filio-pietistic as by scholarly considerations—one may think in this connection, for example, of some of the zealous endeavors of Rasmus B. Anderson of Wisconsin.

Our concern here is with an immigrant who in the third quarter of the century established something of a reputation as a writer of Scandinavian history. This was Paul C. Sinding, who, as early as 1858, published in New York *A History of Scandinavia, From Early Times of the Norsemen and Vikings, to the Present Day*. Sinding gave relatively modest attention to the well worn themes of Old Norse literature and viking expansion, and sought to present a consistent portrayal of the full sweep of succeeding centuries from saga times to the contemporary scene.

If one is to judge only from the publication record one will conclude that Sinding proved a rather successful author in his field. His *History* first appeared in the autumn of 1858. There was, in short succession, another printing in 1859 and a Third Edition in 1860. This writer has had access to a Fifth Edition dated 1862, a Seventh Edition published in 1864, and a Ninth Edition dated 1866.

Yet this is not the end of the story. In 1875 Sinding published a further volume bearing the title *The Scandi-*

navian Races: *The Northmen, The Sea-Kings and Vikings; Their Manners and Customs, Discoveries, Maritime Expeditions, Struggles and Wars, Up to the Present Time*. At first glance this title suggests a new work. But essentially it was the *History of Scandinavia* offered again. The last forty pages added new materials on the Schleswig-Holstein conflict of 1863-64 and offered a survey of Iceland's thousand-year history (inspired no doubt by the Millennial Celebration in 1874). In the older material, a few passages involving scarcely more than half a dozen pages, were redone; otherwise old and new printings were largely identical, page by page. There was a Second Edition in 1878. Later there was a slight change in title (dropping the lead clause "The Scandinavian Races"), with a Fifth Edition appearing in 1882 and a Sixth in 1884.

One may suspect that these individual "editions" were printed in modest numbers, especially the early ones, but a record of fifteen or sixteen printings in twenty-six years does suggest that there was a reading public interested in this kind of history. We must conclude that the general interest in Scandinavian literature and history to which we have alluded at the outset remained widespread throughout the third quarter of the century (see on this, the present writer's "The New England Interest in Scandinavian Culture and the Norsemen", *The New England Quarterly*, June, 1937).

In his "Introductory Remarks" Sinding explained in 1858 how he came to write his *History*. He was early aware, after his arrival in New York, that "Scandinavian affairs were too little known in this country." This impression was confirmed by an eloquent ap-

peal appearing in the autumn of 1857 in the columns of the *New York Journal of Commerce*, under the heading "Scandinavian History—A Work Wanted." "Is there not", concluded this appeal, "someone who will plunge *in media res* and, bringing order out of confusion, give us this so greatly desired History of Scandinavia?" These eloquent words led Sinding to "a correspondence with the talented writer, and later, an interview with him." They inspired him, "a native Dane, having completed my theological studies at the University of Copenhagen, and penetrated with patriotic feelings", to follow the suggestions made, namely, "to plunge *in media res*, and to the best of my ability to do justice to that undeniably interesting subject." He would compose a brief history of Scandinavia—that area which "once was the arbiter of the European system, and by which America, in reality had been discovered . . . " (though he disclaimed any intent of detracting from the splendor of Columbus' achievements). Sinding spoke of his lack "of sufficient literary sources, and of a thorough familiarity with the English language, for the stiffness of which I have to ask a kind forbearance." He was offering his work only as "an Introduction" and his purposes and desires would be fully realized if this work served to "promote even a little interest here for the valuable history of the North."

Sinding's *History* ran to some 435 pages. The type was easy to read, being somewhat open-spaced, for its day. But the title *History of Scandinavia*, was rather misleading. For the center of gravity in the volume turned out to lie primarily in the story of Denmark. True, when he wanted to explain or

amplify some topic in the main stream of his discourse, Sinding dipped freely into Norwegian and Swedish history—but the story of Denmark remained at the core of the narrative. On the other hand, the tone of his discourse was fairly objective, not least in terms of the standards of the 'fifties. Into Sinding's judgment of individual actions, there crept a firm moralistic tone—his theological training ensured this—and he had a tendency at times to digress into the episodic. And when he reached the provocative Schleswig-Holstein issues of his own day he made references to the Augustenborgers which were very unflattering. Yet the narrative was clearly written and relatively free of the "somewhat idiomatic English" for which he asked his readers' indulgence (perhaps good proof readers had been of help). His account of civil and political history flowed forward with a continuity that easily carried the reader's attention with it. In this respect, it moved on a level above that of many a textbook or survey of a later day. While the *History* in various ways is outmoded a century later, it may, for broad orientation purposes, still be consulted with profit.

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To give some account of this *History of Scandinavia* is thus a feasible endeavor; to do as much for the life of its author is quite something else again. One can glean scattered materials from Sinding's Preface and Introductory Remarks but beyond these, additional information, concerning his youth and background, his active writing period, or the circumstances of his declining years, is not easy to come by. It seems clear beyond reasonable doubt that our Sinding is, in the several-volumed bio-

graphical lexicon on the Danish Clergy since the Reformation, compiled by Wiberg in the 'sixties, the one who is listed as Poul Christian Sinding. If so, he was born in January, 1813 at Alsted near the well-known town of Sorø in West Sjælland. The father is listed as a deacon and young Sinding is first referred to as a gardener's apprentice. After finishing his theological course he was appointed in 1848 a junior curate at Nysted in South Lolland. The biographical entry closes with the statement that Sinding ended this assignment in 1853 and was later "supposed to be" in America.

In the "Preface" to his *History*, dated August 1, 1858, Sinding refers to his arrival in the City of New York "about two years ago." Within a year, as seen above, his efforts were concentrated on writing. The *History*, once embarked upon, had not been "a short and facile undertaking, but has occupied my whole days and evenings for a long space of time."

Within the first two years Sinding also made certain contacts which gave him entrée to some cultivated circles in that day's New York. One of these proved helpful financially, in forwarding his work on the *History*, an assist that Sinding generously acknowledged to the benefactor. The latter was James Lenox (1800-1880), the civic-minded philanthropist who became distinguished for his book collecting, and for his association with the later renowned New York Public Library (the seat of the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden Foundations). With good reason therefore the dedication page of the *History of Scandinavia* carried the inscription: "To James Lenox, Esq., of the City of New York, The Man of Letters, The Christian Gentleman, and The Strang-

er's Friend, This Volume is Respectfully Inscribed, By the Author."

That this dedication was earnestly meant is clear from a contemporary letter to Lenox, which may appropriately be quoted in full. It is dated the 16th of September, 1858:

James Lenox, Esq.:

Respected Sir!

I have completed the History of my native country, Scandinavia, and I beg your acceptance of the accompanying copy of the work, which will, I humbly hope, be found worthy of your perusal. Your kindness to me last winter enabled me to complete it leisurely, and having met with good success in getting subscribers for it, I am soon able to repay you the \$50, you were kind enough to advance to me.

I beg you, Sir, to appreciate the full extent of the gratitude, which the delicacy of your proceedings has impressed upon my heart, and which will remain for ever engraven on my memory. This is not the language of flattery.

Respectfully yours,

Paul C. Sinding.

Sinding was elected a Corresponding Member of the New York Historical Society on June 22, 1858 (for this date the present writer is indebted to the Society's Library Staff). In the course of the same year he was appointed "Extraordinary Professor" of the Scandinavian Languages and Literature in the University of the City of New York (now New York University). It was therefore fitting enough that the prefatory letter at the opening of the *History*, strongly commanding the volume to the reader, should be written by Howard Crosby, a professor at the University.

Crosby, who later served as Chancellor of the University (1870-1881), was Professor of Greek Language and Literature. The phrasing of his letter did not necessarily imply a close familiarity with the culture of Northern Europe. But it did reflect the high valuation which Crosby's generation in scholarly and literary circles placed upon a familiarity with Scandinavian history and culture. Crosby reminded readers that a knowledge of the "chronicles and languages of the Norsemen" was needed in order to understand "our ancestral [i. e., Anglo-Saxon] history and mythology, and our composite philology." The *History* met a need and Crosby welcomed it as "an introduction to the old romantic legends of the Skalds, as well as to the more recent but no less romantic stories of the great and magnanimous Gustavus Vasa, Gustavus Adolphus, and the brilliant comets, Tordenskjold and Charles the Twelfth."

The appointment of Sinding to the instructional staff of New York University might have proven a milestone in the annals of Scandinavian-American scholarship, had things turned out successfully. In the first place, this was an early appointment in the field. It shared this distinction with a similar contemporary appointment in what was then called Illinois State University (presumably later Carthage College), thus being one of the two earliest moves in this country, designed to give instruction on the University level in the field of Scandinavian language and literature (see Esther C. Meixner's *The Teaching of the Scandinavian Languages and Literatures in the United States*, Philadelphia, 1941). Another matter of potential significance was the bent of Sinding's interest; in view of

his recent concern with the *History* he might well, in effect, offer a course devoted more to the history than to the language or the literature of Scandinavia, and this would, in its way, have been a virginal effort.

However, these promising academic prospects were not to be realized. During the years in question, 1858-1861, interest in the modern languages was not as yet strongly developed. At the University of the City of New York the modern languages had to be taken at an extra hour. The catalogues for those years list Professors for each of the following: French, German, Italian, Scandinavian, with the Professorship in Spanish momentarily vacant. But from the University Council's records it would appear that in the modern language group only French was formally offered during this period of years, on perhaps no more than two occasions. At length, in March of 1861, Sinding wrote to the University Council stating that "As circumstances over which I have no command have not hitherto, and will not for some time, permit me to form my class for the Scandinavian languages and literature, I hereby most respectfully withdraw my connection with the University . . .," a request which the Council accepted.

During these years Sinding lived in New York City on West 22nd Street, first at number 229, and later at 241. But there are very few details on his activities in the years following. In the late 'sixties he did some translating work. Thus, in 1868 a novel by the Danish Professor of Aesthetics, John Carsten Hauch, entitled *Robert Fulton, An Historical Novel*, appeared here in a translation done by Sinding, who then designated himself "Corresponding Member of the New York Histori-

cal Society, and Fellow of the Historical Society of Quebec, Canada." In 1869 a handsomely printed four-volume work by J. M. Thiele of Copenhagen on *Thorvaldsen and His Works, Containing 365 Engravings with Explanatory Text*, was published in New York, in translation by "Professor Paul C. Sinding." When his *History* appeared in 1875, under the title of *The Scandinavian Races*, Sinding identified himself merely as "Hon. Member of the Quebec Historical Society."

Something of a shadow seems to have hung over the career of Sinding if we have correctly identified his background and early life with the Poul Sinding listed in the Danish lexicon of Wiberg. The entry there closes with this bracketed passage: "Threatened with a legal action, he took leave (of his junior curateship at Nysted) October 19, 1853, leaving behind wife and children, and is now supposed to be in North America." Parenthetically we may observe that this notation seems to carry just a bit of the disdain with which on certain levels of European society the maladjusted member sometimes then was dismissed with the imputation that he sought to evade his responsibilities, in seeking escape in the new Republic overseas.

If Sinding left his homeland under anything of a cloud this was not reflected in his general attitude, for he wrote often in most praiseworthy terms of Denmark and all that he owed his native land in the way of education and grounding in the fundamentals of Christian faith and morals. On the title pages of successive printings of his *History* he took pains to identify himself as "Rev. Paul C. Sinding of Copenhagen, Denmark." One of the obituary notices at his death stated that "he at-

tempted to establish a Danish church here [New York] but failed, and then took to writing as a profession." In any event, whatever experiences may have preceded his departure from Denmark, they left no mark of bitterness with him. His writings give the impression of a temperament that was bright and buoyant.

Yet we have to chronicle that Sinding ended his days in lonely circumstances when death came in November, 1887. He died in a room at The Merchant's Hotel, 39 Cortlandt Street, in New York City. *The New York Times*, reporting on his death, stated that "he was last seen alive Friday night (Nov. 18). A friend, J. G. Unnevehr, a sculptor of 13 Bond Street, called at his room at 11 a. m. yesterday (Saturday) and found him dead in bed, fully dressed and a book at his side... He leaves a wife and two children" (this friend

presumably was the John G. Unnevehr who had published the Thorvaldsen engravings referred to above). More poignant was the paragraph in *The New York Daily Tribune* which noted that his body was removed to an undertaker's at 109 Greenwich Street. "It was still there yesterday but there were no visitors. A grave will be secured today (Nov. 21) at the Lutheran Cemetery and there will be a quiet funeral. He has no relatives in the city, and (Consul) General C. T. Christensen pays the expenses."

If any papers of these two friends, J. G. Unnevehr and C. T. Christensen, are extant they may throw some additional light upon the later years of this early Scandinavian-American historian who with high hopes kept before the American reading public of the third quarter of the last century his history of the Scandinavian North.

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## THE TRAVELING STATE THEATER OF SWEDEN

BY BIRGIT WADIN-QVARNSTRÖM

THE THEATER has a centuries-old history in Sweden and long ago established its position as an important element in the cultural life of the country. The Swedes have always been and continue to be a theater-minded nation, a fact one might prove by merely listing the numerous permanent stages in large and small cities and towns throughout the land. But in comparatively recent years there has arisen a great need for introducing the legitimate drama to the most remote villages and districts, and in response to this demand the Swedish State Theater, or *Riksteatern*, was founded a little over 25 years ago.

Today a vital and forward-looking organization, *Riksteatern* has ever since its beginnings enjoyed constant growth and progress and has fulfilled in every way the hopes of its original sponsors. The nation-wide interest elicited by *Riksteatern* during its 26-year history has indeed been so great that it may be likened to a national movement; in fact, it is today the largest theatrical organization in Sweden, with a total annual audience of 600,000. This means that almost every tenth Swede visits at least one of the 1,850 performances given by the numerous touring companies in no less than 450 Swedish towns and villages. The Theater's success in its endeavor is also indicated by the fact that in places where formerly it was difficult to get one full house, now as many as six performances may be given in a single week.

The founding of *Riksteatern* should be seen against the background of the depression at the beginning of the 'thirties, which was responsible for a rather serious setback of private-enterprise theatrical activity. Each year saw the number of touring companies grow smaller, repertoires became skimpier, and the artistic standards declined sharply. In other words, the proud provincial theatrical tradition of Sweden was about to disappear, and something new was called for. That "something new" was *Riksteatern* which was organized in 1933. In that year the Government decided to give state support to a national traveling theater, which could give even the most remote sections of the country dramatic performances of the same artistic excellence as that available to audiences in the big cities.

But such a theatrical organization costs money, much money, even though it is not necessarily to be financially self-supporting. A State subsidy is given on each ticket and the State grant for the 1958-59 season amounted to no less than 1,790,000 Swedish kronor (approximately \$340,000). In addition, certain municipalities give *Riksteatern* financial support locally. For the 1957-58 season their grants reached three million Swedish kronor (almost \$600,000).

An essential part of *Riksteatern* is its network of local connections. There are now some eighty local societies, which in the beginning provided the



*Sallstedts Bildbyrå*

*A scene from "The Diary of Anne Frank"*

foundation on which *Riksteatern* could build. These local societies rely mainly on volunteers, or propagandists in the best sense of that much misused word, who by subscriptions and publicity see to it that people come to the performances—and often to such an extent that the demand for tickets is greater than the supply. Collaboration between *Riksteatern's* Head Office and the local societies is provided by their sending delegates to the national congress. This is held every second year and provides the opportunity for local societies to state their wishes and make their criticism of repertories and artistic standards, to discuss local matters, and elect

five members to the Central Committee.

In Sweden there is a wide interest in the drama, and it is the purpose of *Riksteatern* to take advantage of this interest, develop and broaden it, and through it try to reach more and more people and infuse in them a desire for good theater. Consequently, eight to ten special touring companies are assembled each year to tour the smaller communities with plays which can be suitably given on small stages. Furthermore, *Riksteatern* tries by special performances for groups, pensioners, and schoolchildren to reach even wider audiences, and by means of drama

courses, lectures, and discussions to give the Swedish public a chance to develop an interest in the theory of the drama.

Through its choice of plays *Riksteatern* tries to satisfy all tastes consistent with artistic integrity. The repertoires of *Riksteatern* include both light comedies and serious dramas, works of classical authors as well as modern playwrights. Opera, ballet, and musicals are also given by *Riksteatern*. The selection of the repertoires has been the responsibility of Gösta M. Bergman, who has been the Director of *Riksteatern* from its founding over 25 years ago until last year when he was made Sweden's first Professor of Theatrical History.

The various plays selected for the twenty-fifth anniversary season, the fall



*Sallstedts Bildbyrå*

Bengt Virdestam and Sonja Westerbergh  
in "Master Olof"



*Sallstedts Bildbyrå*

Tord Stål and Annika Tretow  
in "The Cherry Orchard"

of 1958, indicated that Professor Bergman's successor as Director, Hans Ullberg, is continuing the great traditions of the past. Among the plays offered were Chekhov's *The Cherry Orchard*, Holberg's *The Political Tinker*, Hjalmar Bergman's *Grandmother and God*, and Vilhelm Moberg's new play *The Judge*, in addition to Louis Verneuil's light comedy *Love and Let Love*. In smaller village auditoriums were shown, among many others, *The Summer of the Seventeenth Doll* by Ray Lawler and *The Diary of Anne Frank*, both of which had previously been successfully staged in a number of cities and towns. And in the spring of 1959 *Master Olof* by Strindberg and *Tea and Sympathy* by Robert Anderson were among the plays staged by *Riksteatern*.

If we take a look at the repertory of the last few years, we will find sev-



Sallstedts Bildbyrå

*Siv Sterner and Inga Tidblad  
in a program of excerpts from  
Shakespeare's plays*

eral plays that have been great international hits. Tennessee Williams' *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* was shown on a tour lasting no less than 55 days during the spring of 1956 and enjoyed tremendous success. Every performance was sold out, with numerous standees even in those theaters than can accommodate thousands of spectators. Sandro Malmquist, who was responsible for both the direction and the decor, is one of *Riksteatern's* greatly valued stage managers and has also often been invited to be guest director at several foreign theaters, as for instance, Theatre Habimah in Tel Aviv.

During the 1956 season some of the classics of Scandinavia were also performed. *A Doll's House* by Henrik Ib-

sen became a great personal success for Gunn Wällgren, one of the stars of the Royal Dramatic Theater, who was loaned to *Riksteatern* for this part. August Strindberg's tragedy *The Father* was on the road at about the same time, with Semmy Friedmann and Linnea Hillberg playing the Riding Master and Laura, under the direction of Rune Carlsten.

The fall season of 1959 saw the presentation of *Henry IV* by Luigi Pirandello, *Thermopylae* by H. C. Branner and other well-known plays together with a Shakespeare evening starring Inga Tidblad and operettas by Franz Lehar and Emmerich Kalman. And on the program for the spring of 1960 we find inter alia *The Taming of the Shrew* by William Shakespeare, *The*



*Sallstedts Bildbyrå*  
*Bullen Berglund as "The Director"*  
*in "Our Town"*

*Sallstedts Bildbyrå**A scene from "The Tea House of the August Moon"*

*Hasty Heart* by John Patrick and a ballet performance featuring the Swedish ballerina Elsa Marianne von Rosen.

Strindberg has been more often represented among the plays put on by *Riksteatern* during its 26 years than any other author. Vilhelm Moberg is second, while in sixth place we have Eugene O'Neill, number nine is Shakespeare, and number eleven is Jean Anouilh, whose *L'invitation au château* as staged by Börje Mellvig was the big hit during the fall of 1957.

Of the American plays that have been offered during the last few years and found much favor with the Swedish public, we might mention first of all John Patrick's *The Teahouse of the August Moon*. Directed by Sandro Malmquist, the play was sent on the

road in the fall of 1954, and later two additional troupes performed in smaller towns and villages. Karl Erik Flens played the part of Sakini in a grand total of 241 performances. A very fine reception was also accorded *Our Town* by Thornton Wilder, shown by *Riksteatern* in 1957 and also directed by Sandro Malmquist. Incidentally, this play was first shown in Sweden in 1939 in a production by *Riksteatern*. On this and all following tours of this play the part of "The Director" was played by Bullen Berglund, for whom this part has become a sort of life career; he has played it in almost all the theaters of Sweden who have shown this play, about 500 times, and always wearing the same coat and the same hat.

*Riksteatern* now has thirteen touring

companies and it is no easy task to arrange for thirteen premières to be given in different parts of Sweden within a month of one another. Rehearsals take place on various hired stages throughout Stockholm as *Riksteatern* has no rehearsal stage of its own. This also means that additional rehearsals must be carried on at the place where the première is to be given at least a week before it takes place, mainly for reasons of make-up, costumes, lighting, and sound effects. Each touring company takes along all its technical equipment, sound effects (which are recorded on tape), and lighting apparatus. Rehearsal stages of its own in Stockholm have indeed been a long-felt want of *Riksteatern*. Another need is a dramatic school connected with *Riksteatern* to train young actors before putting them on the boards on actual tours around the country.

The great increase in theatrical activity in Sweden in recent years has resulted in an acute shortage of actors. The need of *Riksteatern* for players to tour the provinces is made all the greater because actors would rather play in Stockholm, where there are opportunities to earn extra money on the

radio and by television appearances. Due to the extremely large number of performances it gives, *Riksteatern* provides engagements for some 250 actors a year, of which a number are under annual contracts while the rest are engaged for certain parts.

The inconveniences of touring are largely offset by comfortable transport and by having between four and six nights in the same town, and also—and by no means least—by playing before the most enthusiastic audiences in the country. Especially in the north of Sweden—north of the Arctic Circle—interest is so great that people do not hesitate to travel a hundred kilometers to see a performance. It was this region which the Norwegian Shakespearean actor Hans Jacob Nielsen had in mind when, to the question as to whether it was difficult to play before an audience not well versed in Shakespeare, he gave his celebrated answer: "I cannot imagine anything better than to play Hamlet to an audience that does not know Hamlet's fate."

That remark says quite a lot as to what has been and will continue to be the purpose of Sweden's Traveling State Theater.

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# THE EARLIEST VOYAGES TO GREENLAND

BY G. J. MARCUS

## I

THE CLAIM to have been the original discoverers of Greenland apparently rests between two seafaring peoples, the Irish and the Norsemen. The former, and not the latter, were undoubtedly the pioneers of deep-sea navigation in the North. The arrival of the Irish in Greenland, however, cannot be regarded as more than a possibility, while that of the Norsemen admits of no shadow of doubt.

For at least two centuries before the Viking Age the Gaels had been venturing, stage by stage, out into the Western Ocean. In the sixth century the large Irish sailing curach, which was a hide-covered craft of quite respectable dimensions (unlike the small rowing curach seen in the west of Ireland today), fitted with a proper keel and propelled by a single square-sail hoisted to a mast stepped amidships, was commonly used by clerics on their far-ranging missionary and eremitic voyages. In the second half of the century a number of such ventures are recorded by Adamnan in his *Vita S. Columbae*, of which the voyage made by the monk, Cormac úa Liatháin, and his companions in search of "a desert in the ocean" is by far the most interesting and important. According to Adamnan, though the pilgrims did not succeed in finding this "desert", their curach ran for fourteen summer days and nights before a fair south wind and, steering to the northward, voyaged for such a distance that the passage

seemed to be "extended beyond the limits of human wanderings, and return to be impossible." The maritime enterprise of the Gael reached its peak, perhaps, towards the close of the seventh, and during the major part of the eighth century. The Irish settlements in the Faroe Islands lasted from about A. D. 700 to 800. Those on the south-east coast of Iceland lasted for at least eighty years, and probably for much longer. It is worth noticing that when the first Norsemen came to Iceland they appear to have followed in the track of the Irish pioneers.

In view of the long-continued traffic between Ireland and Iceland it is by no means improbable that from time to time a curach would be forced off its course in a gale and so driven westward to Greenland. In later years this happened to not a few Iceland-bound merchantmen, and it may well have happened to a curach. Alternatively the Irish may have sighted the glaciers of Greenland from afar whilst exploring the seas around Iceland. It is known from the writings of Dicuil that, on one occasion at least, an Irish craft had ventured for some distance into the open sea to the north of Iceland, where it had apparently encountered drift-ice. Moreover, though no firm evidence exists of any Irish venture to Greenland, there are a number of significant passages in the *Immrama*, or legendary voyages, of St. Brendan and others, which suggest that in very early times Irish mariners may have had some

knowledge of Atlantic islands which were later discovered or re-discovered by the Norsemen. Thus St. Brendan's "Isle of Sheep" has been identified with the Faroe Islands, his "Volcanic Isle" with Iceland, his "Pillar of Crystal" with an iceberg (only to be encountered on the far side of the Atlantic), his "black fog" and "great shoal of fish" with the Grand Banks of Newfoundland, his "swarthy dwarfs" with the Eskimos of Greenland, and the fearsome monster which had "tusks like a boar" with the walrus. Some of these glimpses of strange islands far out in the ocean are also found in the older *Immram curaig Máile Dúin*. In so far as the *Immrama* may be taken to represent the collective sea-experience of successive generations of Irish mariners, it is difficult to account for such passages except on the hypothesis already mentioned.

At all events it can scarcely be doubted that if ever the Irish did get as far westward as Greenland in the course of their pelagic peregrinations, it was a case of chance visits only, and not of quasi-permanent settlements such as they had long maintained in Iceland. It is clear from the best and earliest of the Scandinavian sources, the *Islendingabók* of Ari Fróði, that when his countrymen arrived in Iceland they discovered the settlements of Irish anchorites (*pápar*), which to this day are commemorated in a number of Icelandic place-names: *Papey*, *Papós*, *Papafell*, and *Papi*. But when the Norsemen came to settle in Greenland, the only trace they found of earlier inhabitants were "fragments of skin boats and stone implements" belonging to the *Skraelings*, or Eskimos.

The long continuance of these Irish

ocean voyages gives testimony of a standard of seamanship and navigation comparable, one may perhaps believe, with that of the early viking era. The Irish mariners, whether monks or laymen, evidently knew their work. They were the precursors of the Norsemen in some of the furthermost regions of the North. In the *Landnámabók* there is at least one instance of the Irishmen's sea-experience being passed on to their Scandinavian shipmates; and one would like to know more about the Christian man from the Hebrides who sailed with Bjarni Herjólfsson and who composed the verses about the dreaded *hafgerðinga*.

Though there is little enough to be gleaned concerning the practice of seamanship and navigation in the early Irish sources, what little there is is by no means unimportant. In the first place, it would appear that in the larger craft, such as the sailing curach, it was customary for the clergy to be accompanied by professional seamen, who are styled *nautae*; reference is also made to a pilot, *guberneta*. Another point worth noticing is that from the earliest times the Irish seem to have had but little fear of the open sea. This is apparent from a number of passages in the *Vita S. Columbae* and elsewhere. The allusion to the "direct course" shaped by Cormac úa Liatháin and his crew on their third voyage in search of the "desert in the ocean" is of particular significance; for in view of the fact that their curach was far from sight of land at the time, it is certain that they must have steered with the help of the heavenly bodies. There was in fact formerly a tradition in the Faroe Islands that the Irish monks used to make the Iceland voyage early in the

year so as to avoid the fogs and "luminous nights" of later months. (From about mid-May to the beginning of August in the high latitudes the stars are invisible.) All this serves to support the theory that the Irish depended upon the sun and other stars for guidance across the trackless wastes of the ocean. From the ancient *Immrama* we learn, too, how the mariner became aware of the proximity of land by listening to the sound of the sea on a strand, *tuindi fria tracht*, and by watching the flight of birds. Like the Norsemen, the Irish were accustomed to strike out boldly into the immensity of the Atlantic several centuries before the introduction of the magnetic compass. The time-honored belief that it was not until this instrument came into vogue that mariners would venture out of sight of the land is a manifest illusion.

Compared with the Icelandic sagas, however, the Irish *Immrama* are singularly devoid of professional detail and interest. The abundant literature centered around St. Brendan is far more concerned with marvels and miracles than with the prosaic technique of deep-sea navigation. Again, though we are told on Dicuil's authority that a voyage was made to Iceland by a party of clerics in 795, we know practically nothing about the type of craft that carried them there or the course that they steered.

Irish maritime enterprise may be said to have reached its peak in the seventh and eighth centuries. At the end of this period, though the details are sufficiently obscure, it is certain that decline set in. In the viking era no more is heard of the large Irish sailing curach. In the Faroes and in Iceland the *papar* fled before the hea-

then Norsemen. It was now that the viking chieftains, impelled by very different motives from those which had driven the Irish anchorites forth to range the Western Ocean in search of yet more distant and lonelier hermitages, began to follow in their tracks. The native Celtic shipping was for the most part supplanted by the longship and ocean-going *hafskip* of the Norsemen—the greatest seafaring race which the world has ever known.

The discovery of Greenland by the Norsemen followed a pattern which was already familiar—first, the fortuitous sighting of a distant coast by some storm-tossed ship's company; next, a regular, organized voyage of exploration; and, finally, the passage of considerable numbers of emigrants across the sea to take possession of the new land.

The only certainty, in fact, concerning this early phase of Greenland's history is that it was explored between 982 and 984, and colonized about 985, by Eirik the Red and his companions. Everything else is a matter of tradition or conjecture. The ingenious attempts of Lethbridge and others to show that the Irish arrived in Greenland in the Age of the Saints is unsupported by anything worth calling evidence. As has already been said, it is well within the bounds of possibility that they did so; their shipping, their accumulated sea-experience, and their knowledge of seamanship and navigation being quite equal to such an enterprise. But it is improbable that we shall ever know for certain.

## II

The ocean voyages of the Norsemen form one of the earliest and most important chapters in the annals of deep-

sea navigation. More than five centuries before John Cabot arrived in the *Matthew* off the capes of Nova Scotia, a more or less regular traffic passed to and fro with comparative ease and certainty across wide stretches of the North Atlantic.

The explanation of this astonishing achievement would appear to lie, in the first place, in the excellence of Norse shipbuilding; in the second, in the advent of a numerous class of *hafsiglingarmenn*, or deep-water sailors; and in the third, in their mastery of simple, but sufficiently effective, methods of navigation.

By the latter half of the ninth century they had evolved a sturdy, ocean-going sailing ship, variously known as the *hafskip*, *kaupskip*, or *knörr*, which was capable of transporting between forty and sixty persons, a small stock of cattle, the necessary food and fodder, and all the usual farm and household gear, across several hundred miles of open sea. It was with such craft as these that the great emigration to Iceland—an event altogether unprecedented in European history—was accomplished. The *hafskip* was somewhat shorter than the *langskip*, or longship; she drew more water, was broader in the beam, and of a much higher freeboard; in strong winds she was a faster sailer. The evolution of the *hafskip* was unquestionably one of the key factors in the nascent ocean navigation of the Norsemen. The opening up of the new sea-routes reflected the steady progress of Scandinavian ship-building.

At the same time there had been a corresponding advance in Norse seamanship, engendered by centuries of experience, first on the coast, and latterly on the high sea. The Norsemen

of the Viking Age may indeed be accounted some of the boldest and most accomplished seamen known to history.

Their navigation was apparently based on a very skilful dead reckoning, which was checked by an occasional observation of the heavenly bodies, and by such adventitious aids to navigation as seabirds, whales, and ice-floes. The sailing directions which they followed were handed down from generation to generation; they were rarely committed to writing, and even then—in all likelihood—only in part: in their oral form they would most certainly have been a great deal fuller.

### III

According to Iceland tradition, a mariner called Gunnbjörn Úlfsson was, early in the tenth century, driven far to the westward by foul weather to a group of islets which henceforth bore the name of Gunnbjarnarsker, or Gunnbjörn's Skerries: from which point, on the western horizon, he had described an unknown shore. (This, at any rate, is the generally accepted view as to the first sighting of the Greenland coast: but there is also the possibility that the Norsemen may have learned of its existence through a mirage—or else they drew the logical conclusion from observing the flight-line of migratory birds passing between Greenland and the Faroes group.) What might properly be termed the "planned" discovery of Greenland was, as readers of the *Review* will know, the work of the distinguished viking chieftain, Eirik the Red. Eirik in the course of his career having made both Norway and Iceland too hot to hold him, in 982 set out from Snæfellsnes, with a number of friends and followers, in search of the mysterious country which

was reported to lie to the westward. Crossing the sea, they sighted Gunnbjörn's Skerries and shortly after arrived off Midjökull (Middle Glacier) on the East Greenland coast; they then stood to the southward, rounded Cape Farewell, and visited the district which, in future years, was to become the East Settlement. Eirik and his companions spent three winters in Greenland, and passed the summer months in exploring the west coast as far north as Davis Strait.

"When Eirik returned to Iceland," writes Thórdarson in *The Vinland Voyages*, "he 'sold' the new country so attractively to his neighbors that he was accompanied back to Greenland in 985 or 986 by 14 ships carrying between 400 and 500 persons and with them horses, cattle, sheep, goats, chickens, dogs, cats, and varied household goods." According to the *Landnámabók*, quoting Ari Fróði, Eirik had wisely given the newly discovered land the name of Greenland, and had said that people would desire to go there if the country had a good name. The same authority states that eleven other ships which sailed from Borgarfjörd and Breidafjörd at this time were either driven back again or lost. Nothing is known of the fate of those vessels which were lost. They may have foundered in the open sea; or the long, heavy swell rolling landwards may have carried them on to the ice and skerries of the East Greenland coast. Once again, as in the emigration to Iceland, a fleet of "floating Noah's arks" passed overseas to settle in the empty lands. In the narrowest part of the Denmark Strait the distance between the two countries is only some 150 miles. The warm Irminger Current sets northward along

the west coast of Iceland. In the vicinity of the 100-fathom line there is a well-defined line of demarcation between this warm north-flowing water and the cold south-flowing water of the East Greenland Current which occupies most of the Denmark Strait. At this stage of the voyage the emigrants would in all likelihood become aware of a pronounced change in the color and temperature of the water and a no less significant change in the local fauna. Once in the south-flowing Polar Current their ships would be set southward down the East Greenland coast, around Cape Farewell, then northward to the East Settlement.

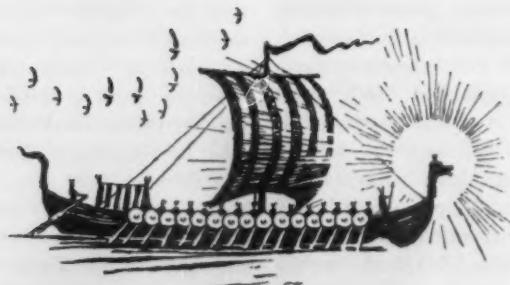
For a number of years the course for Greenland followed the route taken by Eirik on the original voyage: viz., due west across the sea from Snaefellsnes to the East Greenland coast off Midjökull—a first-rate mark—then southward down the coast to Cape Farewell (this was known to the Norsemen as Hvarf, "the turning-point"), after which approach could be made to the East Settlement. An interesting and significant point about these early voyages is that the ice conditions would appear to have been a good deal less severe than was the case in later centuries. This must have greatly assisted the settlement of Greenland, which was in fact completed in a little more than a generation: it occupied the years approximately between 985 and 1020.

The colonization of Greenland marked the final stage of Norse expansion to the westward. A few *hafskip* did, indeed, arrive off the eastern seaboard of North America in the early years of the eleventh century: but the attempt to found a permanent settlement there ended in failure.

To sum up: the only certainty concerning this early phase of Greenland's history is that it was explored between 982 and 984, and colonized about 985, by Eirik the Red and his followers. Everything else is a matter of tradition or conjecture. We have no more certain

knowledge as to who were the first Europeans to set eyes on "Greenland's icy mountains", and how, and when, than we have of the circumstances under which the Greenland colonies established by the Norse settlers finally became extinct.

*Dr. G. J. Marcus is a British scholar and writer in the field of Naval History. He has made a special study of early Irish and Norse navigation and discoveries in the North Atlantic.*



# A FISHERMAN GOES ASHORE

*A SHORT STORY*

By JOHAN BOJER

*Translated from the Norwegian by Astri Strømsted*

SEVERAL fishermen's cottages stood on the shore. They were small and gray with barely enough land to feed a couple of cows. The men had to work a certain number of days a year on the landlord's farm at the rate of a eight shillings a day, and that was nothing to get rich on. Their best hope lay in the sea. They went out for herring in the fall and in winter they would sail to Lofoten for the codfish season. Everything was uncertain, but it meant adventure and a chance for anything to happen. A big catch could bring a lot of money, maybe real riches some day, but much too often both herring and cod failed them, and then there was only more debt to the store-keeper and a general tightening of belts at home.

But one day it got worse. A crisis arose—the motor vessel made its appearance, and how could a small sail-boat compete with that? Buying a motorboat took so much money that they saw no way of going into that.

One man went to his neighbor and asked: "Are you going to Lofoten this year?"

The other shook his head: "I see no way of doing that. I am afraid we poor folks are done with the sea."

They weren't used to staying home for any long stretch of time. They were either working at the big farm or were out fishing; home was for wife and children. They cared little for the piece of land; they were used to looking to the sea for any betterment of their lot.

Then one day the landowner came to them and said: "I'll let you buy the cottage and the croft and also a new piece of land for tilling. Then you can make your living off the land."

But they shook their heads at this. Father and grandfather had been crofters, they were used to turn to the landlord in times of trouble. If someone had a pain in his chest he was given turpentine on a woolen rag, and if another had a stomach-ache the landlord had drops for that too. He was like a father, a tower of strength to them all. Much would be rent asunder when all this came to an end. They would have to take full responsibility for themselves. And to rely on the land the year around, that they had little faith in.

The soil took so much hard work and so much patience, there was no adventure in it, no hope of getting rich quick as on a big haul. And they would have to stay home all the year round, and that was perhaps the worst of all.

"But you'll have security," said the landlord. "And you'll be independent."

In the end three of them agreed to buy both croft and a new piece of land, and soon they started tilling. The landlord gave them good advice,—one doesn't become a farmer in one day. They had to dig ditches and fertilize and plow up old fields and then start the hard work of clearing the new land. When they needed a crown or two they would take a job in town—it was

more certain than fishing; they had to forget about chance and big hauls in seine and net. But the soil demanded up early and late to bed, sweat and patience and care and worry all day long.

No, prosperity didn't come in a rush, but slowly and surely the fields of rye and the patches of grass grew. Of course, they had to pay out interest to the bank, since the place had been bought on a loan, but now they didn't have to pay rent to the landlord; so it came out about even. And they were independent, real farmers, that was a new experience, almost like having a fine new Sunday-go-to meeting suit to show off.

But the fourth fisherman, Per Flata, couldn't keep pace with them. Staying ashore so long had made him feel dizzy. To go into debt to buy house and croft and a new parcel of untilled land, no, that was too much. Having to stay put there the year round depressed him exceedingly; he would wander along the shore and stare out to sea as if he were looking for a sweetheart he had left behind. He couldn't start off by himself, not on a long sail, not out into fabulous story-land. He puttered around—did a little work at home and on the farm, but his heart wasn't in it; he was looking for something that could have meaning for him. He had been a fine seaman, a champion sailor. But a *spade* and a *hoe!* and having to wait until next year to see what came of it!—Not for him.

He finally went to the meeting-house; some comfort he had to have. He sat there singing hymns and sending up little prayers to the Lord for help, because there was little to eat at home and often his wife had to go and borrow from the neighbors.

But in America he had a brother named Henrik, and he had done very well there. Once in a while he would send some money, and Per would give thanks to the Lord for it, and then he would begin to wait and wait for the next letter. It was obvious that this brother—like everyone else in America—must be rich, yes simply *made* of money. But it often took a long time between letters and then he prayed that it must come soon. But it also happened that when it did come, that he thought his brother so easily could have put in another ten-spot. But perhaps Henrik was getting stingy and materialistic-minded.

One day his wife said: "We have no flour in the house, but we have more potatoes than we need. Couldn't you trade some potatoes for flour?" Per sighed and answered: "Oh no, I guess the Lord doesn't give us more potatoes than he knows we'll need."

His brother had started as a farmer on the prairie, and the first years he had to live in an earthen hut and plow with oxen. But things improved, one day there were horses in front of the plow and a house of timber to live in. One day he could look across fields of wheat, and when the war broke out the price of wheat climbed way up and plenty of money was made. He always had to have more land, he became greedy for land, ever more land, and after thirty years he sat there as a rich man. But then the miracle happened.

The railroad was built straight across his land, and more money came in. A station house was put up, and he got more money for the lot. Then store-keepers settled there, they needed lots for their buildings; there followed a doctor, midwife, carpenter, tailor, dentist, shoemaker, bank, a church, every

one needed lots and the land rose in value. Before he had time to turn around his fields had become a small town, but by then his pockets were full of money.

It was indeed like a fairy-tale. But the first thirty years had made him gray and bent, and now he could take a breather. Now he wanted to take a trip to the old country. He was a widower and his children were grown up; he was a free man now.

\* \* \*

Henrik Flata stands by the railing of the little fjord-steamer and looks at the well-known shores, the settlements he so often has thought of through the long years. And there is his own parish underneath the blue mountains, the homesteads, the church. There are the four cottages on the beach, but there is some change here.

Three of them have handsome buildings and well-tilled fields around them. But his childhood home is as before. The small, gray houses seem to have shrunk. He sighed; his brother hadn't been able to cope with things. Well, they would have to find a way; he'll have to give his brother a real boost.

And there is Per on the beach, old and gray. They shake hands and look at each other with moist eyes. The one hardly recognizes the other.

Per Flata has had many children, but they have all gone away. He didn't know how to put them to work at home. So they left. The first wife died, and he has a new young one, who has one child after the other. The house is full of little boys and girls, with finger in mouth they watch the strange uncle, who has such fine clothes and a big gold chain hanging across a white waistcoat.

It's like a holiday in the house, and

Per walks around with tears welling up in his eyes at the thought of having this brother with all the money right here with him, big as life. It's a miracle. Strange are the ways of the Lord.

One day the American says to him: "You need new houses here at Flata."

The other shakes his head. "Yes, talk about houses. But here is never a penny to be made."

"Well, maybe. But your neighbors have put up houses. And I see they all have four, five cows and horses and sheep."

"We-ell, if one thinks of nothing but material things and work and slave both weekday and holiday. But it isn't so sure it'll bring such blessings as it looks like. 'With sin it came, with sorrow it goes, as chaff for the wind.'" He quoted a hymn.

Yes, indeed, Per used the word of the Gospel as an excuse.

"Have you never thought of putting out salmon nets?" asks Henrik. "It should be easy here under the ledge."

Of course, Per had thought of it. And it should have been done, but the money—

And the American brother thought of all the hundreds of crowns he had sent him. Where had they gone? How could it be that such an able man at sea should be so helpless on land.

Then one day Henrik said that now he would go to the contractor and order new buildings at Flata. It seemed a shame that the neighbors should have it so much nicer. But if he entrusted the money to Per no house would go up.

Per got tears in his eyes. "Oh, you Henrik, you Henrik. The Lord has indeed been good to you!"

"Yes, the Lord," said Henrik. "But I haven't been lying in bed myself

either. And what about land? Have you never thought of getting hold of more?"

"Well, thought and thought," sighs Per. "It should have been done, of course, but one can't do everything."

And soon the American discovers that Per has managed to lose both lines and nets, so he can't even go out from the beach and get a little fish for cooking. How things have gone downhill with the old man! And the new wife, who is so much younger than her husband, nestles up to the stranger and smiles and acts up and thinks she's still a young girl. Yes, it's nice goings-on here!

One evening when Per and his wife are in bed he says: "Well, now there'll be great changes at Flata."

"Oh yes?"

"Yes, now there'll be new houses here also."

"Oh?"

"Yes, and he has bought several acres of new land."

"Untilled?"

"Yeah. If one only were young again. But I can ask one of the boys in town to come home."

"One of the boys? No, then *I'll* leave. Ola is eight years old now—are you going to leave him without a roof over his head?" She had Ola before she was married and wasn't quite sure who the father was. But she never liked the children of Per's first wife.

"But who is going to break the new land then? I am too old for that."

"Dear me, can't your brother pay for help? First we'll need a horse."

"I don't dare to ask him for more."

"Pooh, what's a thousand-dollar bill more or less to him!"

Per summons up courage one day he is walking along the shore with

Henrik. "If I only had a horse. I am not strong enough to pull and haul the way I used to."

"Oh, I guess we'll find a way," says Henrik. "I remember how we used to pull and haul when I was home, but it would be nice to have a horse at Flata too."

But before they reach home Per says: "Well, the horse is one thing, but without harness one won't get very far."

"Of course," says Henrik smiling. "Of course you have to have harness for the horse."

"And a wagon."

"Oh yes, of course you need a wagon too. That goes without saying." And he smiles again.

"And in the winter?"

"A wagon isn't much use in winter. You'll have to have a sleigh also."

But before they go in Per stops to do some more thinking.

"What are you thinking of now," says Henrik.

"Oh, it's just—having to borrow a plow from the neighbor all the time..."

The American laughs outright: "Of course you have to have a plow and a harrow."

Then Per gives a deep sigh of relief. Now he is as good as the neighbors.

But while they are at supper Per's wife says: "I wonder if I shall live to see the day when we can ride to church like other people. One can't do it in a hay-wagon." And she looks at her brother-in-law.

"I guess there'll have to be a gig," he says and laughs again.

"We-ell, I was thinking mostly of Christmas when people come riding with bells-a-ringing . . ."

"That would take a large sleigh," says the American, and now he pulls out his wallet and starts making a list.

And before he went back over the Big Pond there were new houses at Flata, and horse and harness and plow and harrow and sleigh and wagon and gig and a large sleigh. It was a great day when the two brothers went out driving together. But the horse was frightened, the gig turned over, worse luck, and one of the shafts broke. It was almost funny, but Per was going to get the gig off to the blacksmith right away and have the shaft fixed.

The little homestead took great joy and pride in having their own horse. Both grown-ups and children would stroke him and talk to him, over and over again. And often they would take a drive just to show themselves; here we come, and the horse had not been borrowed; it was their own. But when winter came they had to sell one cow; the horse needed the hay.

\* \* \*

Henrik Flata left with a strange heaviness of heart. He thought it had been both nice and sad to have been home. But now it so happened that when he came back to his farm he didn't feel at ease there either. The memories from the old country were still fresh, and here he had hardly any land left now, there was a constant demand for more lots and he was too old to start over again at a new place. He had plenty of money and more kept coming in, but he couldn't eat more than his fill, and the children were all off in their new homes.

After a couple of years he went back to Norway again.

And as he stands on the fjord-boat and sees the familiar shore again, he draws a quick breath. There are new houses at Flata, a white house and a red barn, and a horse is grazing nearby.

Per surely must have been thanking the Lord for all this.

One day he says to his brother: "Shouldn't we go for a drive? The gig can't turn over every time."

Per stammers and scratches his head. "Yes, but . . . the gig . . ."

"Yes, you must have repaired that long ago."

Per sighs. "I haven't been able to send it to the smith yet. I was going to have it done, but . . . but one can't do everything at once."

Henrik smiles. They take a walk up to the new piece of land, and Per is uncomfortable. He hasn't gotten around to put spade to ground yet. Then the American draws a deep sigh. Soon he goes back over the ocean again.

Over there he still can't find anything to put his hand to. His long workday is over. The future holds nothing for him. There is always another day, but he doesn't know how he can use it. He visits the youngsters, but they are Americans, and he can't stay long with them either.

A couple of years later he crosses the ocean again. And when he now comes to Flata his brother is quite bent and his hair is white. The gig still stands in the barn, it hasn't been to the blacksmith yet. And the new strip of land lies fallow as before.

The American thinks: "The neighbors who never had any help from a brother are prosperous men and have paid for both homestead and new land. It doesn't look as if financial assistance is always a good thing."

But now Per starts complaining about debts and obligations. He sees no other way out than to sell the horse, or . . . he looks pleadingly at his brother—"or take up a loan on house and land." It is plain that he expects that

the American once more will pull out his wallet.

But Henrik says: "I'll buy your new land from you."

"You?"

"Yes, I am not going across the Atlantic again."

Now Henrik built a small cottage for himself up on the untried land under the ridge. And when he started to break ground he felt as if he were young and started tilling out on the prairie. Now there would be something to do tomorrow also. Money? It is work that gives contentment. It is work that makes one rich. And now he needn't go staring out into the distance for

the old country. He had it right here.

Once in a while Per came up to have a chat with him. Then one time he brought along a spade and started to help, and he could work like a beaver! The sweat was running, the two old fellows looked at each other and laughed, it was great fun for both. And Henrik would say: "Now we'll go in and have a cup of coffee!"

And at last Henrik understood his brother. He who was a great leader, a prince of a man, at sea, he just wasn't made to be his own master on shore. Now that he had a boss over him who said: "Do this, do that . . ." he had become quite a different man again.

*Johan Bojer, who died last year, was one of Norway's best known novelists. Many of his books have been translated into English and other languages, and his stories have appeared in the "Review" and the ASF publication "Norway's Best Stories."*



## SCANDINAVIANS IN AMERICA

Provincial Governor Trygve Lie, who was the first Secretary-General of the United Nations, arrived in New York on October 31 for a 5-week stay in the U.S.A. He was to confer with Ethiopian and Italian delegates to the United Nations about the dispute over the border between Ethiopia and Italian Somaliland. His main task, however, was to promote investment of American private capital in Norway. Mr. Lie was later to continue his financing mission in Western Europe.

The Governor of Oslo and Akershus had accepted an indefinite assignment to serve as chairman of a special committee that will seek foreign capital for the development of Norwegian industry. On the eve of his departure from Oslo, Mr. Lie told reporters that his task in the U.S.A. would primarily be to establish contacts between American and Norwegian interests.

The fiftieth-anniversary meeting of the Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study will be held in the East Lounge of Ida Noyes Hall at the University of Chicago on May 6 and 7. At the first session papers will be presented by Professors Lee M. Hollander, Gösta Franzén, Paul Schach, Kenneth Chapman, Arne Lindberg and Phillip M. Mitchell. At the second session the speakers will be Professors George Schoolfield, Richard B. Vowles, Robert D. Spector, Dr. Erland Lagerroth, Dr. Harald Næss, and Mr. Thomas Buckman. On the second day the assembly will be addressed by Professors Eric O. Johannesson, Loftur Bjarnason, and Richard Beck. Dr. Henry Goddard Leach will be the main speaker at the

annual dinner, followed by a panel discussion moderated by Professor Erik Wahlgren.

Professor Einar Haugen, Chairman of the Department of Scandinavian at the University of Wisconsin, has been appointed a Visiting Professor by Harvard University during the fall term of 1960-61. Following an extended stay in Japan during last fall and early winter, he is spending the current term at the University of Oslo doing research on various aspects of the Norwegian language controversy.

The statue of George M. Cohan by the Danish-American sculptor Georg Lober was unveiled in Times Square, New York City, on September 11, 1959. Mr. Lober is also the sculptor of the Hans Christian Andersen statue in Central Park in New York.

The launching last November of a new Danish-American Society (in Danish: *Dansk Amerikansk Samfund*) may well be regarded an historic event comparable to the formation in Chicago in 1905 of the Danish American Association which ceased functioning during the First World War. Out of that old organization grew, however, the ideas of the Rebild National Park in Denmark and the American Independence Day Festivals which flourish every July Fourth and will observe their 50th Anniversary in 1962.

The new organization had functioned since 1958 as a Committee, successfully carrying through a number of important projects until formally incorporated as a Society under the laws of the

State of New York, not for profit but with the purpose "to promote friendship and cultural relations between the United States and Denmark."

The Festival Company of Norway, comprising top performers from the Bergen International Festival of Music, Drama and Folklore, on January 5, launched a coast-to-coast tour of the U.S.A. under the patronage of King Olav V. The first Norwegian folklore show ever to tour the U.S.A. had been booked for more than 60 performances, extending into April, 1960.

The 18-member Norway Festival Company is headed by Toralv Maurstad, one of the most gifted of Norway's younger actors, who is assisted by top-notch singers, dancers and fiddlers. The variety program includes traditional folk dancing and folk singing, as well as dramatic ballet based on ancient legends.

A Henrik Ibsen Memorial Committee was recently established in New York, with the object of collecting funds sufficient to erect a statue of Ibsen in New York City. The Committee, with actor and translator Arvid Paulson serving as temporary chairman, has already added a great number of persons prominent both in literary circles and the theater, and many others, to its roster.

The Frederik Lunning Prize, instituted by the late founder and president of Georg Jensen Inc. of New York, was recently awarded the Finnish architect and interior designer Antti Nurmesniemi and the Norwegian artist Arne Jon Jutren. This annual Prize amounts to \$5,000.00, which in this case will be divided between the two craftsmen.

At a ceremony in Washington, D. C., on December 1, Norway and eleven other nations signed a treaty on Antarctica, barring any military activity, freezing all territorial claims in that area, and assuring continued opportunities for scientific research.

A proof of the enormous interest in America in the creations of Ingmar Bergman, the Swedish film director and author, is that no less than five of his pictures were recently shown in New York. In fact, some movie critics have said that 1959 was indubitably an Ingmar Bergman year. Most popular in New York were *Wild Strawberries* and *The Magician*. *Smiles of a Summer Night* and *The Seventh Seal* were revived as a double bill, and *Three Strange Loves* was also shown again.

Norwegian-born Molla Bjurstedt Mallory, one of the world's most outstanding tennis players during the 1920's, died on November 22, while staying in Stockholm. She was 67 years old and had lived for many years in the United States. She won the U. S. National singles championship no less than eight times and held 22 national titles in all. Two years ago she was elected to the Tennis Hall of Fame at Newport, R. I.

Modern design, color and superb workmanship marked a large sales exhibit of Norwegian silver at Norway House in New York last November. Made by David-Andersen of Oslo, the collection included 140 pieces of sterling silver hollow-ware, enameled jewelry, and enameled sterling flat-ware. The exhibit was arranged by the Norwegian Silver Corporation.

# THE QUARTER'S HISTORY



**DENMARK**

AT THE OPENING of the current session of the Folketing, October 5, Premier H. C. Hansen expressed the satisfaction of the Government with the foreign trade situation that had enabled Denmark to secure a foreign currency surplus of more than 1.5 billion kroner (over \$200 million). In his speech Mr. Hansen proposed to continue the present financial policy of the Government in order to consolidate the present boom and gave a survey of the various measures the Government wished taken to implement this policy.

The premier's speech was the Government's answer to a most unusual step the two opposition parties, the Conservatives and the Agrarians, had taken, when their deputies the day before the opening of the Folketing in a joint session had adopted a program bitterly critical of the Government. The opposition plan proposed a general tax reduction that would cut the revenue by some 800 million kroner (over \$100 million). Among other things income taxes paid by about 90 per cent of the taxpayers would be reduced by about one third. The opposition's main point was that it was appropriate during the present boom to abolish measures that had been taken to secure employment and economic activities during a slack period. With only 22,200 unemployed during September, Denmark has reached practically full employment.

While the opposition plan was

adopted unanimously at the joint session, it had unexpected repercussions. One of the most respected economic experts of the opposition parties, the Agrarian and former Minister of Finance, Thorkild Kristensen, whose advice had not been sought, denounced the program as unrealistic and announced that he would not run for reelection for his seat in the Folketing for reasons of conscience: he would not be able to support the program during the campaign.

THE MAIN BONE of contention in the Folketing was the question whether to impeach former Minister for Greenland, Johannes Kjærboel (Soc.-Dem.), for his role in events that led to the total loss of the *M/S Hans Hedtoft* with all hands and passengers in Greenland waters in January 1959. The opposition parties wanted the former minister impeached for having discarded a joint warning against winter navigation of icefilled Greenland waters by all captains of the Greenland ministry and for having coaxed the captains into signing a second statement advocating winter navigation. However, the three coalition parties as well as the state attorney found that Kjærboel, while to blame for his actions, could not be proven guilty in the sense of the law and that impeachment procedures were for this reason inadvisable.

A CHURCH CONFLICT made headlines in the Danish press in October when the bishop of Viborg, Christian Baun, ordered one of Denmark's woman preachers, Helga Jensen, to stay out of

her parish church in Skive while he conducted a service there. The action of the bishop who at an earlier stage had refused to ordain Miss Jensen because he could not reconcile the idea of female clergymen with his interpretation of the Bible, aroused the indignation of the very popular Rev. Helga Jensen's parishioners. The point was widely held that no one, least of all a preacher, should be denied access to the house of God under any circumstances.

A CUSTOMS REVISION bill to implement Denmark's duties as a member of the new free trade association of the "outer seven" was introduced in the Folketing on November 10. The measure embodies a radical revision, in most cases complete repeal, of all import restrictions.

IN OCTOBER a group of ten American newspapermen who had toured Denmark ten years ago just before implementation of the Marshall Plan, revisited Denmark as guests of the Danish Government, who wanted to show them how much the Danish economy had progressed during the decade.

ON NOVEMBER 5, Foreign Minister Jens Otto Krag returned from Tokyo. He had toured the most important industrial regions in Japan for four days as guest of the Japanese Government. He had also represented Denmark at the GATT Conference in the Japanese capital.

DENMARK'S POSITION as a leading shipbuilding nation was strengthened considerably on November 23, when a new shipyard was inaugurated at Lindø on

the isle of Fyn. The new yard cost about 100 million kroner (about \$15 million), and will be able to build supertankers up to 100,000 tons dwt. It belongs to Odense Staalskibsværft A/S, owned by Denmark's shipowner king A. P. Møller.

The new yard features a for Denmark revolutionary method of launching new vessels. They are built and completed in two 900 ft. long, 135 ft. wide drydocks where they are floated by letting water into the dock. Construction of the first vessel, a 48,000 ton tanker for the California Transport Corporation, was already progressing at the time of the official inauguration. Four more tankers have been ordered to be completed within 2½ years. The building costs of the five vessels amount to 400 million kroner (\$60 million). Employment is expected to rise from 200 to 2,000 within one year and will transform the sleeping old village of Munkebo into a thriving modern community. At the dedication festivities Premier H. C. Hansen delivered the main speech before 250 invited guests.

A FORMER DANISH diplomat and political officer with the United Nations, Povl Bang-Jensen, was found dead with a gun in his hand in a park in Queens, N. Y., on November 26. Bang-Jensen became the center of world-wide attention when he refused, in 1957, to hand over to U.N. officials a list of names of 81 Hungarian witnesses who had testified anonymously to the U.N. Committee investigating the Hungarian rebellion, a committee on which Bang-Jensen served as a staff secretary. Bang-Jensen held that he was conscience-bound not to divulge the names because the witnesses had testified under

the condition that their identity would remain unknown to any member of the U.N. secretariat. Later Bang-Jensen was dismissed from the U.N. After the cremation of his body in New York his widow and five minor children flew to Copenhagen for funeral services attended by Foreign Minister Jens Otto Krag, atomic physicist Niels Bohr, and other celebrities.

ON OCTOBER 30, Denmark and Yugoslavia signed in Belgrade a trade agreement that gives Denmark the opportunity to export cement and food machinery as well as breeding live stock to Yugoslavia and import nonferreous metals, corn, wine, grapes, dried fruit, and other food items as well as machinery from that country to the tune of 35 million kroner yearly.

SEVEN DANISH COMMUNISTS were sentenced on December 21 to imprisonment for periods ranging from 18 months to five years for espionage for the benefit of East Germany in the most comprehensive espionage in Denmark ever. (See the Autumn 1959 issue, p. 276.)

PREMIER H. C. HANSEN was hospitalized on December 29 with a case of virus pneumonia. On February 19 the whole nation was saddened by the news of the death of the Prime Minister.

IN DENMARK also traffic accidents are steadily increasing. According to official statistics published at the end of the year, traffic deaths nearly doubled during the last decade, from 363 in 1950 to over 600 in 1959.



**ICELAND**

EVEN FOR the politically minded Icelanders, 1959 was an unusually political year. Electoral reform was the great issue, and the passing of the reform bill after the June elections brought about the second elections, under the revised system. These second elections, fought on more conventional issues, opened the way for a new Government coalition, which at year's end was busy preparing sweeping economic measures.

The present Alþing, elected on October 25 and 26, is composed of 60 members, as compared with 52 under the old system. Instead of 28 constituencies electing from one to eight members, some proportionally and some not, there are now only eight constituencies, electing from 5 to 14 members each, all of them under the system of proportional representation. The fall campaign was short but intense, the principal issues being economic, particularly farm prices. The minority cabinet of Social-Democrat Emil Jónsson froze farm prices by decree in September, a measure that met a forceful reaction from the farmers and the parties in which their influence is the strongest.

The result of the elections was broadly as follows:

The Independence Party received 33,798 votes, a drop from 42.5% to 39.7%, and 24 members.

The Progressive Party received 21,884 votes, a drop from 27.3% to 25.7%, and 17 members.

The Labor Alliance received 13,621 votes, a gain from 15.2% to 16%, and 10 members.

The Social-Democratic Party received 12,910 votes, a gain from 12.5% to 15.2%, and 9 members.

The National Preservation Party received 2,882 votes, a gain from 2.5% to 3.4%, and no members.

As the figures indicate, the most noteworthy gain was made by the ruling Social-Democratic Party, while the Communists (Labor Alliance) scored what they called a defensive victory, halting their heavy losses in the spring elections.

Since the Social-Democrats and the Independence Party had begun limited cooperation with the formation of the Emil Jónsson cabinet in December, 1958, it was generally assumed that they would now form a new majority cabinet. This they did in late November, just as the newly elected Alþing assembled for its first session. Ólafur Thors once again became Prime Minister, and his cabinet includes the following ministers: Guðmundur I. Guðmundsson, who remained as Foreign Minister, as he had been in two previous cabinets; Bjarni Benediktsson became Minister of Justice, Emil Jónsson Minister of Fisheries, Gunnar Throddsen Minister of Finance, Gylfi P. Gíslason Minister of Education and Ingólfur Jónsson Minister of Agriculture.

IN SPITE of the fact that 1959 was a year of relative economic stability, it was last fall obvious that drastic measures would have to be taken to make stability permanent in Iceland. The balance of payments was most unfavorable, and Iceland had taken foreign loans to the extent of its capacity to repay. There was a periodic shortage

of foreign currency, and it was generally acknowledged that the króna was grossly overvalued as compared with other currencies. Internally, the system of subsidies to the fisheries was becoming over-extended and created many difficulties. The new Government promised proposals to remedy this situation, but asked the Alþing to postpone its session until January to gain time for preparing such proposals. After a stormy session, including attempts at filibustering, the Government had its way.

AMBASSADOR JOHN J. MUCCIO left his post as U.S. Ambassador to Iceland in early December, after serving since 1955 in Reykjavík. He is to be replaced by Mr. Tyler Thompson, a native of Hancock Point, Maine, who has been in the foreign service 29 years, currently as Consul General and Counselor at the Embassy in Ottawa. Mr. Muccio has been one of the most successful and popular foreign Ambassadors in Iceland and he and his family have made a great many friends among the Icelanders.

1959 WAS GENERALLY a prosperous year for the Icelanders, although they had their share of natural catastrophes, including heavy losses at sea. Fishing was generally very good, especially the summer herring season, which has notably failed for many years until this last. A host of new fishing vessels were added to the fleet, primarily the smaller types, since inshore fishing has already improved, thanks to the extension of the fisheries limits to 12 miles. Five large trawlers are on order in Germany, all expected to be delivered this year.



**NORWAY**

NORWEGIANS went to the polls on September 28 to elect members of 730 municipal councils, with balloting in two Finnmark districts being held in December. Final results show larger votes for all major parties, though Labor lost a few mandates. Communists received 3.85% of the total vote, a new post-war low. There were 1,670,158 validated ballots, an increase of 59,366 above the total for the municipal elections in 1955.

Compared with the municipal elections in 1955, the Labor vote increased by 33,726 as against vote gains of 40,283 for Conservatives, 19,648 for the Center (formerly Agrarian) Party, 15,249 for the Christian People's Party, and 11,715 for Liberals. The Communist Party received 20,722 fewer votes, and Joint Non-Socialist Lists showed a drop of 28,564. Percentage-wise, Labor advanced .48% Conservatives 1.82%, Centerites .94%, Christian Democrats .05%, and Liberals .40%. At the same time, Joint Non-Socialist Lists dropped 1.92%, and the Communist vote declined 1.43%.

IN A CEREMONY held October 2, King Olav formally opened the 104th regular session of the Norwegian Parliament, and read the Speech from the Throne, outlining the Government's general policy objectives. Subsequently, the report on the State of the Realm, covering developments since the beginning of 1959, was read by Aase Bjerkholt, Minister for Family and Consumer Affairs.

The Speech from the Throne reaffirmed that Norway will continue to

take active part in international efforts to safeguard the peace and lessen world tensions. A principal task will be to assure economic growth and full employment.

Concrete proposals announced in the Speech included measures covering reorganization of the job placement administration, further expansion of school facilities, a new national plan for expansion of vocational training schools, an overall plan for expansion of universities and other schools of higher learning, additional credit and guarantee arrangements for fishermen, development of information services for consumers, and appointment of a grievance director for civilian state employees.

The State of the Realm report revealed that net freight earnings of the merchant fleet produced 1,960 million kroner in foreign exchange during the first six months, about 35 million kroner above the corresponding 1958 figure. In the same period, Norway's current balance of payments showed a deficit of some 470 million kroner or about 160 million kroner less than for January-June 1958.

THE NORWEGIAN Broadcasting Corporation predicted some time ago that Norway would have about 6,000 television sets at the end of 1960. As NBC by December had already issued over 3,600 TV licenses, the earlier estimate would seem to have been much too conservative. During the first seven days of November alone some 400 licenses were registered.

Regular TV programs in Norway are not scheduled to start until this summer. Nevertheless, NBC has up to now

collected more than 1,300,000 kroner on its experimental TV transmissions. This includes the license fee paid by every prospective viewer as well as the special tax levied on each TV set before it leaves the factory or shop.

THE FIRST of three nation-wide refugee relief drives to be staged in Norway as part of the World Refugee Year was opened by King Olav on a radio program October 23. Urging full support for the U.N. Refugee High Commissioner's goal of liquidating European refugee camps, the King declared: "All of us strive for world peace. But one thing is certain—as long as there remain camps where our fellow humans live in despair, there can be no peace for the conscience of mankind."

A STATUE OF THE LATE QUEEN MAUD was unveiled on the Royal Palace grounds in Oslo on October 10. The ceremony was attended by the Royal family, the Diplomatic Corps, and government representatives.

FOREIGN MINISTER Halvard Lange returned to Oslo early in November after a 5-day official visit to Poland. During his stay, Mr. Lange exchanged views with Polish Foreign Minister Adam Rapacki. A joint communiqué said that the two officials shared the hope that the U.S.-Soviet exchange of visits would mark the first step towards lasting relaxation and a period of fruitful negotiations. Both expressed a sincere desire to continue the satisfactory development of Norwegian-Polish relations.

IN A CEREMONY at Oslo University

on December 10, the 1959 Nobel Peace Prize was presented to Philip Noel-Baker by Gunnar Jahn, chairman of the Norwegian Nobel Committee. Deeply moved as he accepted the \$42,650 Peace Prize award, together with gold medal and citation, the 70-year-old British M.P. said: "I have today experienced the greatest honor that, in my opinion, can be bestowed on any human." The presentation ceremony was attended by King Olav, Crown Prince Harald, Princess Astrid, as well as Parliament President Nils Langhelle and Foreign Minister Halvard Lange.

Mr. Jahn, speaking on behalf of the Norwegian Nobel Committee, paid warm tribute to the 1959 Peace Prize recipient. "Philip Noel-Baker," he said, "has for 45 years dedicated himself to aid suffering humanity. Above all, he has worked indefatigably and incessantly for disarmament.

"As a young man, he participated in the Quaker ambulance service during World War I. Later, he stood by Fridtjof Nansen's side in his great humanitarian work in the Soviet Union, Greece, and Asia Minor. Since World War II, he has again contributed towards solving refugee problems.

"Throughout all these years, Noel-Baker has been an ardent advocate of disarmament and peace. Never for a moment has it occurred to him that it would not be possible some day to solve political conflicts through negotiation. In his latest and most important work, *The Arms Race—A Program for World Disarmament*, Noel-Baker has shown the road that should be taken. His authorship reveals vast knowledge, wisdom, and objectivity. Yet, his principal contribution has been his active participation in nearly all

moves to further international understanding in the broadest sense."

In the traditional Nobel Peace Prize Lecture, delivered December 11, Noel-Baker discussed "National Defense by International Disarmament." Citing the arms race as the most important factor in today's international affairs, he called for complete abolition of every possible means of waging war, under full international control. If the nuclear arms race continues, the Peace Prize winner predicted that in ten years there would be six or more "military giants," not just two as now. "And who knows which nation will be the mightiest then? Military research does not stand still. The threat of mass destruction will keep on growing."

Philip Noel-Baker said he was gratified that all discussion of partial disarmament measures had been suspended, and that the new 10-nation commission was shortly to meet to consider plans for universal and total disarmament, with detailed proposals to be worked out in the shortest time possible. Referring to a long conversation with Nikita Khrushchev, the British Laborite said he believed the Soviet Premier was sincere in proposing general disarmament. Noel-Baker added: "We shall never know whether or not Khrushchev is sincere unless we promptly start earnest East-West discussions on the basis of the mandate defined by the U.N. General Assembly."

Philip John Noel-Baker has been lecturing, writing and working for peace since his early youth. First elected to Parliament on the Labor ticket in 1929, he served in the coalition government during World War II. After Labor took office in 1945, he served in several important posts.



**SWEDEN**

No decision should be made at present about production of atomic weapons in Sweden, according to a unanimous report issued in November by a committee consisting of eighteen leading members of the governing Social-Democratic party, and including proponents as well as foes of adding tactical nuclear weapons to Sweden's armaments. Not until the latter part of the 'sixties, the committee observed, would Sweden be able to make atomic warheads, and the first decision does not have to be reached until 1963. The country therefore has a few more years to consider and study the problem. The committee recommended, on the other hand, that a study of protective measures against atomic weapons that the Parliament authorized last year be expanded, even if, as a result, it should come to deal with questions concerning research on construction of atomic weapons. This conclusion, according to one interpretation, would give the military most of the atomic-weapons research it has asked for. Opposition leaders and newspapers favoring early preparations for the production of atomic weapons, however, regarded the report as disappointing, even if it represented a step forward.

THE SEVENTH SESSION of the consultative Nordic Council, held at Stockholm November 1-7, explored new ways of promoting cooperation among the five member nations. Altogether about 100 delegates, representing the Parliaments and Cabinets of Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Finland and Ice-

land, attended the 7-day meeting. The next Nordic Council session will be held in Iceland, at the end of July or early in August, 1960.

Addressing the final plenum meeting, the Council's Swedish President, Bertil Ohlin, observed in part: "We have not tried to cover up the difficulties facing our member nations. At the same time, however, we have taken a realistic view of future tasks for Nordic cooperation."

At the beginning of the deliberations, several delegates expressed keen disappointment that member governments had abandoned plans for the projected Nordic Customs Union in favor of the European Free Trade Association scheme. Norwegian Premier Einar Gerhardsen, denying there was any cause for pessimism, declared that the new situation faced member nations with a series of challenging tasks which would test their ability for developing Nordic cooperation.

Toward the end of the session, however, the economic debate seemed to reflect strong confidence in the possibility of achieving close cooperation on many issues. Thus, against only four votes, the Council approved a resolution recommending establishment of a Ministers' Committee for increasing economic cooperation among the Nordic nations.

The Nordic Council acted on a number of other issues. By 38 to 17 votes, it rejected a proposal requesting member governments to examine the question of commercial advertising in Nordic television. The majority interpreted the request as a veiled attempt to endorse the idea of introducing paid advertising on Norwegian, Swedish and Danish television transmissions.

A resolution urging cooperation on

problems confronting the Lapp minorities in Norway, Sweden and Finland was unanimously adopted. Suggesting establishment of a separate Lapp fund, the resolution calls on the three governments to develop joint plans for promoting a series of economic, cultural and social measures. These should gradually help to give the Lapps the same opportunities for advancement as the rest of the population. The governments were asked to report to the Council on implementation of the proposals.

Establishment of a joint Nordic Institute for Maritime Law, to be located in Oslo, was also recommended by the Council. This important question was originally raised by two Members of the Norwegian Parliament, Erling Wikborg and Helge Seip. During the debate, Rep. Wikborg suggested that the proposed institute should be developed into a center for post-graduate studies and research in the complexities of international maritime law.

THE CONVENTION for the European Free Trade Association, to go into force on July 1, 1960, was initialed by Cabinet Ministers of Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Great Britain, Austria, Switzerland and Portugal on November 20, at a two-day meeting in Stockholm.

The Outer Seven representatives issued a communiqué emphasizing that establishment of the European Free Trade Association—EFTA—was viewed as only a step toward an agreement among all 18 members of the Organization for European Economic Cooperation—OEEC, which also includes the six nations now joined in the European Economic Community, namely West Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, The

Netherlands and Luxembourg. Under the EFTA convention, import tariffs in force on January 1, 1960, are due to be reduced 20% as of July 1. Subsequent tariff cuts, at the rate of 10% a year, are designed to achieve a free internal market among the Outer Seven after a 10-year transition period.

Following the Stockholm conference, the respective governments were slated to examine every provision in the convention, with the final signing taking place in mid-December. Thereafter, each of the national assemblies was to consider ratification of the pact.

A NEW FULBRIGHT agreement between the United States and Sweden, which was signed in Stockholm on November 20 by the Swedish Foreign Minister and the American Ambassador, will enable hundreds of Swedish and American citizens to study, conduct research and teach in the respective countries during the next four years. A total of 1,550,000 kronor will become available for this purpose. About 155,000 kronor will be distributed during the current year and 465,000 kronor during each of the three following years. The funds will be used primarily to defray travel expenses for Swedish citizens who go to the United States for studies, research or teaching, and to finance corresponding activities by American citizens in Sweden. Within the framework of the Fulbright program, the United States maintains similar exchanges with thirty-six other countries.

Under the original Fulbright agreement between the United States and Sweden, which was signed in 1952, a sum of 568,700 kronor was made available for similar purposes. The funds, which had accrued from the sale of

American war surplus property to Sweden, were exhausted during the budget year 1955-56. Thanks to the first Fulbright agreement, more than two hundred Swedish and American scholars, teachers and research workers were given an opportunity to visit the respective countries. The exchange program is administered by the U.S. Educational Board in Sweden, which consists of four American and four Swedish representatives, with the American Ambassador in Stockholm as chairman.

VICTOR SJÖSTRÖM, or Seastrom, one of the pioneers of the Swedish cinema, both as actor and director, died in Stockholm on January 3 after a long illness. He was eighty years old. In 1912-22 he created a number of memorable Swedish pictures, and after that he was active in Hollywood, directing, among others, Greta Garbo and Lillian Gish. In 1930 he returned to Sweden. His last role was in Ingmar Bergman's *Wild Strawberries*, which is enjoying a very successful run in the United States. The National Board of Review of Motion Pictures recently named it "the best foreign film of the year," while Victor Sjöström was voted "the best actor."

ON DECEMBER 10, the birthday of Alfred Nobel, four of the Nobel Prizes were awarded by King Gustaf VI Adolf at a gala assembly in the Concert House in Stockholm. Each winner was presented with the Nobel gold medal, an address, and a check. On the same day the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded in Oslo.

The 1959 Nobel Prize in literature was awarded the Italian poet Salvatore Quasimodo. He was cited for "his lyr-

ical poetry which, with classic fire, expresses the tragic experience of life in our time." The Physics Prize went to two Americans, Drs. Emilio Segré and Owen Chamberlain, both of the University of California, at Berkeley, for having demonstrated in 1955 the existence of the sub-atomic particle called the anti-proton. The Chemistry Prize was given to Professor Jaroslav Heyrovsky, director of the Polarographic Institute of the Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences in Prague. He was recognized for having devised in 1922 an electrochemical method of analysis.

The 1959 Nobel Prize in medicine and physiology was awarded to Dr. Severo Ochoa of New York University and Dr. Arthur Kornberg of Stanford University. They were cited for their fundamental discoveries on the biological synthesis of nucleic acids, chemicals that play a key role in the mechanism of life.

A GOVERNMENT BILL about a four per cent general sales tax from January 1, aimed at covering the budget deficit, was passed by the Riksdag on December 1 by 185 to 178 votes. One member of the opposition, which consists of the Liberals, the Conservatives and the Center party, pressed the wrong button, thus adding one vote to the majority. The Prime Minister had announced that the Government would resign if the

bill failed, and the seven Communist deputies, who did not approve of the new tax, therefore abstained from voting. They did not, their leader said, want to help the opposition to power. The Premier answered that if the Social-Democrats had held two more seats in the Riksdag, they would have commanded a majority of their own when the two houses, as in this case, vote together. The Conservative leader, on the other hand, observed that if the composition of the Upper House had been based on the local elections last year, the opposition, not including the Communists, would have had two votes more than the Social-Democrats. The present line-up in the Upper House is 79 Social-Democrats and 69 members of the opposition, not counting the non-voting Speaker. In addition, there are two Communists. The members of this chamber, who are chosen by local councils, serve eight years, and only about one-eighth of them are elected each year. Elections to the Lower House are due next September. At present the opposition commands one-half of the votes, or 115. The Social-Democrats have 110, and there are 5 Communists.

When a Government bill calling for higher taxes on gasoline, fuel oil, coal and coke came up for voting, the Communists joined the opposition, and this proposal therefore was rejected, by 186 to 184.



**Eyrbyggja Saga.** TRANSLATED FROM THE OLD ICELANDIC WITH INTRODUCTION AND NOTES BY PAUL SCHACH AND LEE M. HOLLANDER. University of Nebraska Press and The American-Scandinavian Foundation. Lincoln, Nebraska, 1959. 20 + 140 pp. Price \$4.25.

This new translation of the *Eyrbyggja Saga* is a welcome addition to a series of modern saga translations which have supplanted the obsolete and archaic renderings of the nineteenth century. It is based on the *Vatnshyrna* version as edited by Hugo Gering in the *Altnordische Saga-Bibliothek* (1897) and by Einar Ól. Sveinsson in the *Íslensk Fornrit* series (1935).

It may be true to a certain extent that the *Eyrbyggja Saga* is more episodic in character than other great sagas of Icelandic antiquity, but upon closer observation it becomes evident that there is a very definite thread of action and plot which pervades this tale about the inhabitants of the mountainous peninsula of Snæfellsness in western Iceland. Although chiefly concerned with certain dominant clans of the region, individual personalities do emerge around whom the action of the saga revolves. Such a leader is the shrewd politician and diplomat Snorri, who dominates the action, at least after his chief rival, the noble and upright Arnkel, has been slain. Indeed, no description of Snorri godi, as drawn from other sagas such as *Heiðarviga Saga*, *Grettis Saga*, *Njál's Saga*, or *The Laxdoela Saga*, can be considered complete without the picture of this leading chieftain as it emerges from the pages of the *Eyrbyggja Saga*. This figure of Snorri is in itself sufficient to give a very definite unity to the saga. However, any "weaknesses" of plot which may be evident are richly compensated for by the great wealth of "antiquities" which abound in this saga. We are given insights into the traditions and folkways, legal procedures, feuds, customs and religious beliefs and superstitions of the Norsemen of the 10th and 11th centuries.

Above all it is the great array of personages, all skillfully drawn, which lends this saga its particular value. With a few deft strokes the author describes Arnkel's senile father, the cantankerous and envious Thórolf, or his phlegmatic and peace-loving son Thórarin, who however is stirred to brave action when faced with the challenge. In Thurid, Snorri's half-sister, we recognize the irresponsible and finery-loving type of woman who can betray her husband without any compunction. Of a completely different mold is the loyal Thorgerd who leaves no stone unturned in seeking legal redress for the slaying of her husband Vigfús. The hot-headed Thorleif Kimbi, the gentle and modest Aud, the jealous Thórodd and the brave and youthful Steinþór are but a few of the finely etched characters which appear on the backdrop of these Icelandic scenes.

This new translation into a very realistic English is a precise and accurate rendering of the Icelandic text. Nothing of the spirit of the original has been lost in the process. It is of particular interest to observe the extensive use of dialogue in the saga. In many cases these few terse words, sometimes ironic, sometimes foreboding, actually carry the action in themselves. This characteristic of tight-lipped understatement which is a feature of almost all sagas is particularly effective in the *Eyrbyggja Saga*. It demands a special skill to reproduce these passages with their nice subtleties and fine nuances of meaning. This the present translators have accomplished with remarkable success even to the extent of imitating the alliterative style of the original.

The notes are held to an irreducible minimum. All are most helpful in explaining to the reader conditions and situations which are so far removed from our own civilization. Of similar help in locating the scenes of the action are the two maps, particularly the larger one of the peninsula to the south of Broad Firth.

The thirty-seven skaldic verses have been translated by Professor Hollander. It is safe to say that there is no one who can reproduce in English this genre of Old Norse poetry with such consummate skill as this distinguished scholar.

CARL F. BAYERSCHMIDT  
Columbia University

**Nobel.** By NICHOLAS HALASZ. *The Orion Press.* New York. 1959. 284 pp. Price \$4.50.

The definitive biography of Alfred Nobel has yet to be written. The author of the latest volume is a Hungarian by birth, a journalist resident in New York City. From archives long kept secret he has assembled facts not hitherto conveyed to the public. They include the lonely Swede's love letters to the lady who was a friend and confidante over many years and for whom he provided an annuity. His chief affection, however, was for his mother. His image of wifehood was a celestial being of the hereafter. The German pacifist Baroness Bertha von Suttner indeed aroused his passion to create implements for peace, and she, after his death, was awarded one of his peace prizes.

Alfred Nobel died December 10, 1896, leaving 32,000,000 kronor for annual prizes in the five idealistic pursuits of physics, chemistry, medicine, literature, and peace.

Nobel was one in the brilliant line of Swedish scientists that began with Linnaeus. Nobel's father and his brothers were also inventors, but they did not, like Alfred, combine their talents with a genius for business. Hence Alfred's fortune. He made nitroglycerin, an Italian discovery, useful and he himself invented dynamite, a product which has not, as he had hoped, made war impossible!

H. G. L.

**A Bibliography of Skaldic Studies.** By L. M. HOLLANDER. *Ejnar Munksgaard.* Copenhagen. 1958. 117 pp. Price Kr. 35.

Professor Hollander is in my opinion the best translator of Icelandic skaldic poetry into any language. He renders into English the difficult alliterations, assonances, and kennings in literal translation but understandable verse. The present volume is his exhaustive bibliography of the editions, translations and criticisms of a body of poetry as unique in its way as an anthology of ancient Greek poetry.

I believe that all American scholars hope for long life for Professor Hollander so that he may continue to interpret this great body of medieval poetry to the reading public of every English-speaking land.

H. G. L.

**Jean Sibelius.** By HAROLD E. JOHNSON. *Knopf.* 1959. Ill. 287 pp. + xi. Price \$5.00.

Harold E. Johnson, former ASF fellow and 2-year Fulbright Research Scholar to Finland, has used his time well, to judge from the contents of this fascinating biographical study of Finland's greatest composer.

Throughout sixteen out of the nineteen chapters of his book, Mr. Johnson has chosen to follow a strict historical-chronological sequence, using this as a framework to "set the record straight" regarding the facts of Sibelius' life and of the circumstances surrounding his compositions. It is plain that Mr. Johnson feels that "official legend" has led to distortion of these facts and circumstances; and so he has chosen to assume the pose of a "sternly objective" commentator.

As an attempt to present information and a point of view that helps one achieve a better balanced judgment of Sibelius and his work—both in terms of Finland and in terms of the world at large, this study is of genuine help. On the other hand, it is easy to see why those whose idolatry of the Finnish master is unreasoning, for patriotic or other motives, will find much to raise their hackles. Indeed, the most fascinating part of the book, in which he sets forth reasons for Sibelius' failure to compose any major works during the last thirty years of his life, verges on the purely speculative. However, the groundwork for the speculation is painstakingly and skilfully laid. As Johnson himself indicates, verification of many of the inner and outer events of Sibelius' life will have to await full publication of the correspondence between the composer and his intimate friend and supporter, Baron Axel Carpelan.

Until this correspondence is published in full, much of Mr. Johnson's book will have to be taken as one man's opinion on certain matters. Nevertheless, when read in balance to the English-language Sibelius studies of Gerald Abraham (ed.), Olin Downes, Karl Ekman, Cecil Gray, Rosa Newmarch, Nils-Eric Ringbom and Bengt von Törne, it becomes a singularly valuable addition to the literature on Sibelius.

The complete catalog of the composer's works, compiled on the basis of first-hand research in Finland, is a most welcome part of Mr. Johnson's book.

DAVID HALL

**The Saga of the Folkungs; Engelbrekt.** By AUGUST STRINDBERG. Translation and Introduction by Walter Johnson. *University of Washington Press*. Seattle. 1959. ix plus 204 pp. Price \$4.00.

**The Vasa Trilogy: Master Olof; Gustav Vasa; Erik XIV.** By AUGUST STRINDBERG. Translations and Introductions by Walter Johnson. *University of Washington Press*. Seattle. 1959. ix plus 341 pp. Price \$6.00.

Here are the fourth and fifth volumes in what will presumably be a complete rendition of Strindberg's historical plays. Of the plays in the first of these two volumes a translation of *The Saga of the Folkungs* has already appeared in England but here in America Mr. Johnson's translation is the first. Also, *Master Olof* has previously been issued by The American-Scandinavian Foundation.

Long-term readers of *The American-Scandinavian Review* of course know that Sweden has a history and that Strindberg was also aware of that fact. But as late as 1926 a *Dictionary of European Literature* by Laurie Magnus, published in London, gave Strindberg 17 lines, describing him as a "Naturalist" of "coarse cleverness" whose chief plays were a "sexual trilogy: The Father, Miss Julia, and The Creditors."

In these historical plays, however, we have a Strindberg who does not date. As Mr. Johnson points out in his introduction to the *Saga*, Strindberg had in 1899 passed through his "inferno" period and had come to see a divine element in the governance of the universe. The translator also calls attention to the expressionistic aspects of the play and the use of symbolism. Moreover, Strindberg's matured view of reality enables him to place his tragedy in a "Christian-classical" frame, as Mr. Johnson also points out in his introduction. And the symbols and expressionistic devices are not Strindberg's "finishing touches" but have a popular origin.

*Engelbrekt*, the second play in the first volume, is a tragedy of divided loyalties, personal and public, for Engelbrekt Engelbrektson, spokesman for the Swedes to King Erik of Denmark just before the rebellion of Sweden against Danish oppression (1434), was husband of a Danish woman who had brought up her son and daughter as Danophiles. Here the treatment is realistic, based on the tidy dramatic formalism of Scribe, within which formalism the characters, however, still breathe freely.

*Master Olof*, the first of the Vasa trilogy, depicts the coming of the Lutheran Reformation to Sweden at first through the innocent means of the young theologian Olof, not at all sure of himself, a coal of fire, but one that needs blowing upon by others lest it flicker out. It is the Anabaptist Gert, a "communard" as Strindberg characterizes him, who fans the flame until it burns brightly. Then, however, King Gustav has use for it. In the second of the trilogy we find Olof no longer young, no longer hot with certainties but resigned to playing the loyal servant to his monarch.

In *Erik XIV* Strindberg treats realistically a king whose idiosyncrasies—to put it mildly—had seduced all previous imaginative writers on him into romanticism. Gustav Vasa had never liked his heir, Erik had felt himself unwanted, and attained temporary adjustment only when he fell in love with a flower-seller whom he later married, thus legitimizing his two children. The plot is woven around the struggle for power between the king and the nobles, with the dice loaded in favor of the king, but with the game complicated by his occasional lapses into insanity, during one of which he imprisons and kills such influential enemies as the Stures, leaving his confidant Göran Persson to clean up the resulting complications. While the treatment is, as above noted, realistic, the effect upon the reader of modern sensibilities is about the same as if he were watching the doings at a witches' sabbath. Neither in this play nor in the others does the realistic treatment mean that Strindberg has pulled his expressionistic and symbolizing punches.

LLEWELLYN JONES

**Methodology in the Study of International Relations.** By TRYGVE MATHISEN. *Oslo University Press and the Macmillan Company.* Oslo and New York. 1959. 265 pp. Price \$3.75.

For those who take a special interest in two or more areas of the world it has been gratifying during the last few decades to see the ever growing flood of text-books and treatises in the field of international relations. And undoubtedly of equal importance has been the establishment of this subject as a discipline or department in many American and European universities.

But this new discipline has been a sprawling one and ever hard to define. A few writers, and UNESCO too, have attempted to cope with this problem, but many unanswered questions remain. Therefore, the present contribution from Norway deserves a wide audience among those interested in international relations, since it seeks both to stake out the field and to establish a theoretical framework for the subject matter as a whole.

In Part I the author deals with the multidisciplinary method and discusses international relations as a "science in the making". Part II contains an analytical exposition of the many elements included in the discipline; and the third part deals with methods of research and basic types of study.

Marked throughout by clear reasoning and sound judgment, the book will be found to be a stimulating guide to both the study and teaching of international relations. However, to many the greatest value of the book may lie in the over-all view provided and the unity imposed by the author's model of analysis.

A well-known Norwegian social scientist and a Fellow of the Norwegian Research Council of Science and the Humanities, Dr. Mathisen has for a number of years surveyed international relations teaching and its attendant pedagogical problems both in the U.S. and Europe. He has also published two volumes on Spitzbergen and the role of this arctic archipelago in international politics.

ERIK J. FRIIS

**Ingrid Bergman. An Intimate Portrait.** By JOSEPH HENRY STEELE. *David McKay Co.* New York. 1959. 365 pp. Price \$3.95.

In this lively, well written, but not too intimate portrait Joseph Henry Steele proves that a press agent can do more than a professional Madison Avenue job, that is at least when he is also a fatherly friend and confidant of his ex-employer. He gives a charming—and charmed—account of his personal experiences with and the glories and vexations of perhaps the most maligned film personality of today. He sees the Swedish-born actress as a highly talented, delightful, warmhearted, idealistic, and in the ways of the world rather naive human being, cursed with an insolvable problem. On one hand, her art means everything to her and she is ready to sacrifice all for it; on the other hand, she is also very much woman, a highly emotional one, and she yearns for the opportunity to dedicate her whole personality to her functions as a wife, housekeeper and mother, all of which is constantly prevented by her art.

This conflict is further complicated by the chagrin of ordinary people such as illchosen husbands—one too sober-minded and down-to-earth, the other too impetuous and thoughtless—plus the curse of being an actress who has to live her not too conventional private life in a goldfish bowl.

Most other women would have gone to pieces under the impact of the tribulations Ingrid Bergman has been exposed to. A part of her audience had taken her favorite role of the virgin from *Orleans* much too literally and had deemed their idol beyond the temptations of this world. They refused to condone the human frailties of the actress who had personified Joan on the screen and stage. But Miss Bergman was made of sterner stuff. She suffered terribly from the injustices and the hypocrisies of her attackers—theater-owners in the U.S. waited to make sure that *Stromboli* would be no box-office success before they decided to join the boycott of the "immoral" pair Bergman-Rossellini—but she did not crack up. She came out of her ordeal disillusioned but stronger,

able to find peace and harmony in a new marriage with a more congenial and considerate partner and to be reunited with a now grown-up daughter of whom she had been bereft through intolerance and pettymindedness. And she has achieved new artistic triumphs and experienced, the most arousing triumphal welcome back to the country that had, only eight years earlier, cast the first stone and persecuted her with showers of abuse.

GUNNAR LEISTIKOW

**Edvard Munch. Graphic Art and Paintings.** By ARVE MOEN. In three volumes. *Forlaget Norsk Kunstreproduksjon*. Oslo. \$12.50 per volume, bound in leather.

Unquestionably of the most significant artists that Scandinavia has given us, Edvard Munch, who died in 1944 at the age of 80, is universally regarded as a major figure in the development of modern art. A pioneer in the field of expressionism, an art mode which is currently of great appeal to painter and public alike, Munch wrote in 1889 his now famous declaration, "No longer shall I paint interiors and people reading and women knitting. I shall paint living people, who breathe and feel and suffer and love". Most of Munch's work in painting and print-making in the 1890's and the early years of this century (at a time when Freud was establishing the medical significance of subconscious drives) is concerned with such basic forces in life as love, desire, fear, anxiety, death. Titles selected at random confirm this preoccupation: *The Cry*, *Anxiety*, *Jealousy*, *The Dance of Life*, *Separation*, *The Death Chamber*. Munch grouped several of his pictures in a series which he referred to as the *Frieze of Life* and which he had originally called *Eighteen Pictures from the Modern Life of the Soul*. Later on he spoke of the series as depicting "the joys and sorrows of the individual seen close up".

Considering this subjectivity, it is hardly surprising that the text of Arve Moen's trilogy is primarily concerned with Munch as a human being and with his pictures

as subject-matter and content. The first volume, *Age and Milieu*, is largely biographical with particular concentration on the family background and association with the Christiania (Oslo) Bohemian group of artists and writers followed by a more summary treatment of the years in France and Germany, the nervous breakdown in 1908 and recovery at Dr. Daniel Jacobsen's clinic near Copenhagen, and the last more quiet but no less productive years spent in Norway. In the second volume, called *Woman and Eros*, Moen discusses Munch's ambivalent attitude toward woman (she is innocence, love, and lust; she is a Madonna whom he worships, a tender woman whom he could love, a careless creature who tortures him with jealousy; she is a vampire that sucks the blood of man and reduces love to ashes). Moen refers to Munch's pictures as "commentaries from love's battlefield". He makes a slanting reference to the similarity between Munch and Strindberg but no analysis of their precise relationship, a subject of sufficient general interest that one wishes it had received fuller treatment. The third volume is devoted to Munch's portrayal of *Nature and Animals*, first as symbolic instruments to further the theme of the picture and later objectively in the beauty of their own physical existence.

The division of the publication into these three categories seems a little capricious and it is sometimes difficult to know to which volume to turn for specific reproductions, for example, the color plate of the portrait of Hans Jæger and several landscapes are found in the *Woman and Eros* volume. This is the more serious inasmuch as the volumes are primarily picture books (the preface states, "This is first and foremost an illustrated work on Edvard Munch's art"), and the text serves frankly as an introduction to the more than 250 excellent reproductions in black and white and color. The work, selling at a modest figure considering the number and quality of the illustrations, is altogether a fine example of the taste and craftsmanship in book-making that we have come to expect from Scandinavia.

While Arve Moen's text is based on the

well-known literature on Munch (which he openly acknowledges) and while it makes no pretense of presenting any new discoveries, still it provides interesting and often provocative reading. One regrets that no mention is made in the very brief bibliography of the major book in English on Munch, Frederick B. Deknatel, *Edvard Munch*, New York, 1950, published as the catalogue of the large exhibition which circulated throughout the States in 1950-51. Deknatel's closely-packed essay abounds in information and analysis of Munch's art and thought and draws many valuable comparisons of the artist's work with that of his contemporaries in Germany and France. Moreover, Deknatel lists, with comments, a bibliography of 112 items as against the 25 items listed by Moen. This comparison is made not to cavil with an author over his intent, but merely to point out that the readers addressed in this English edition of Moen's work might as well have appreciated being informed or reminded of the material on Munch readily accessible to them. Also of interest to this public might be the catalogue of the Museum of Modern Art's exhibition, *Edvard Munch, A Selection of His Prints from American Collections*, by William S. Lieberman, New York, 1957.

But there is nothing in English, or any other language, to compare with the abundant full-page illustrations, 45 of them in color, in the Moen publication, which is indeed a timely one. Expressionism is riding the waves, people are interested in Munch and want to see good reproductions of his work. While Munch's graphic work is well represented in the major print rooms in this country, his paintings are rarely found in either public or private collections over here. Consequently, the color reproductions will be particularly gratefully received, not only by teachers, students, and the everwidening general audience for modern art, but also perhaps by those young American painters whose work often bears a remarkable affinity to Munch. There has never been any question of his supreme importance as a printmaker in the history of modern art but his painting has often been apologized for,

if not actually attacked because of his careless treatment of the materials, splashing and scratching and even dripping the oil on the canvas. It may be time now to take a second look at Munch's "indifferent" technique when so many of our contemporary painters are deliberately eschewing the appeal of a more traditional paint surface. The Moen publication provides us with a splendid opportunity to study this as well as the many other intriguing facets of the great Norwegian's art.

ELLEN JOHNSON

Oberlin College

**Helligdag. Erindringer.** By CASPAR HASSELRIIS. Illustrated by Hans Bendix. *Dansk Samvirke* and *Ejnar Munksgaard*. Copenhagen. 1959. 195 pp. Price \$4.00.

Everybody in the Scandinavian community in New York, and a lot of others, know C. H. W. Hasselriis. He has for almost twenty years been the director and inspirer of everything concerning information about Denmark in the United States. Plus lots of other things. Therefore, his book of memoirs, although written in Danish, eminently deserves a review in this journal.

Casper Hasselriis has his own most personal way of writing memoirs. He does not start with his birth and he does not stop at the present time. He starts with whatever he feels like, and whenever he remembers something worth mentioning he tells it right away and does not bother about sequence. He remembers not only things about himself but about all kinds of things he has seen, heard, read or come across. And whenever he remembers a good story, which he does incessantly, he puts it down right away so it does not get lost. He is full of charm, self-irony, humor, impishness, and what the Danes call *lune* and nobody else has a word for. The result is a volume of keen observations, delightful expressions, charming passages, interesting stories and human understanding, and it is hard to put it down once you have started reading.

GUNNAR LEISTIKOW

## BOOK NOTES

*The Power of Small States—Diplomacy in World War II* by Annette Baker Fox is an incisive inquiry into the many problems faced by small and militarily weak countries, why they may at times be important actors on the international stage, and how they often have resisted pressure from great powers during periods of crisis. The author has used five countries as cases in point and submits these original and interesting classifications: Turkey, Neutral Ally; Finland, Fighting Neutral; Norway, Maritime Neutral; Sweden, Armed Neutral; and Spain, Unneutral Neutral. Dr. Fox's trenchant analysis of the economic and political significance of these states during the war period provides new perspectives on the history of the last few decades. (University of Chicago Press. 1959. 212 pp. Price \$5.50). Dr. Fox, who teaches political science in Hunter College, is also the author of *Freedom and Welfare in the Caribbean*.

The *Yearbook* for 1959 of the American Swedish Historical Foundation, under the editorship of Adolph B. Benson, hews to the high standards set by its predecessors. The annual contains a number of valuable articles on historical and cultural topics, among whose authors we find Ambassador Gunnar Jarring, Dr. Amandus Johnson, Dr. Henry Goddard Leach, and the Editor of the volume. There is also a section on the activities of the Foundation and its Museum in Philadelphia. (Price \$1.00).

The conflict between modern totalitarianism and the Western democratic way of life forms the background for the play *Journey Into Winter* by the Icelandic writer Kristján Albertsson. Its characters exemplifying the various political and ideological forces at work in the world today, this vivid and suspenseful drama provides much food for thought and reflection. The play was recently produced at the National Theater in Reykjavík and has now been published in the English translation of Muriel Jackson. (Helgafell. Reykjavík. 1958. 107 pp.). The author, who is a noted essayist as well as a playwright, is in the Icelandic diplomatic service and makes his home in Paris.

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*Modern Governments* by Harold Zink is a comprehensive survey, primarily designed as a college text, of the political institutions and procedures of the major foreign powers as well as some of the smaller ones. Devoting its greatest attention to Great Britain, France, Germany, and the Soviet Union, the book also includes excellent studies of the governmental systems of Norway and Sweden, Canada, Latin America, Japan, and India. Although brief, the section on the two Scandinavian countries discusses in some detail the development of their political institutions, the Constitutions, the role of the monarch, political parties, administration, the courts, regional and local government, etc. The author, who has published numerous books in the field of comparative government, is on the faculty of Ohio State University. (D. Van Nostrand Co. 1958. 804 pp. Ill. Price \$7.50).

Two early works of Søren Kierkegaard, *Johannes Climacus* and *A Sermon*, have been translated into English for the first time and published in one volume by Stanford University Press. The translator, Dr. T. H. Croxall, has also supplied the book with an "Assessment", which in itself is an important contribution to Kierkegaard scholarship. The volume appears in the series "A Library of Modern Religious Thought", edited by Dr. Henry Chadwick. (1958. 196 pp. Price \$3.00).

In *The Arctic Year* by Peter Freuchen and Finn Salomonsen a famous polar explorer and an eminent Danish naturalist have collaborated to present a month-by-month account of life in the North. Their book deals in fascinating detail with the animals and plants of the Arctic and also with the climate and the geography that are characteristic of the top of the world. The late Peter Freuchen has given this book a first-hand authenticity, and it also benefits greatly from Dr. Salomonsen's years of study of arctic life, which have made him an authority on the adjustments that men as well as flora and fauna have made to be able to exist in the Arctic. (G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1958. 438 pp. Price \$5.95).

*Scandinavia in U. S. A.—1960* is the eighth annual edition of this pocket-size directory, containing a wealth of information about Danish, Icelandic, Norwegian and Swedish firms and activities in America. Attractively illustrated, the booklet features an article on the St. Lawrence Seaway and the Great Lakes Area, and includes reports on products, tourism, travel, and services. There are also lists of Scandinavian consulates, information offices, institutions, importers, publications, recent books, etc. (Scan-Am Publications, Box 17, Westport, Conn. Price 60 cents).

The Golden Jubilee Number of *St. Ansgar's Bulletin* features an article by the Reverend John LaFarge, S. J. entitled "Fifty Years of St. Ansgar's League". It also contains the fifty years' report by the president of St. Ansgar's League, Viggo F. E. Rambusch.

Although belatedly, the Editors wish to call attention to an important English-language monograph about the Lapps published in Norway a few years ago. Entitled *Social Relations in a Nomadic Lapp Community* and written by Ian Whitaker, this volume is the result of field work carried out under the auspices of the University of Cambridge and is an excellent sociological study of a Swedish Lapp community. It is published by Norsk Folkemuseum as Volume II in its series "Samiske Samlinger", edited by Asbjørn Nesheim. (1955. 178 pp.).

*The Winter Serpent* by M. H. Davis is an action-filled historical novel, the locale of which is the rugged land of North Britain and the adjacent islands. Set in the ninth century, this carefully researched story is told against the background of the invasions of the Northmen and concerns a viking warrior and the daughter of a Scottish chieftain. Told with vigor and skill, the story succeeds in bringing to life a turbulent age of legend and adventure. (McGraw-Hill. 1958. 300 pp. Price \$4.50).

*I Sailed With Rasmussen* by Peter Freuchen is both the story of the late author's friendship with Knud Rasmussen and a tribute to the renowned Danish explorer. Freuchen and Rasmussen were "partners" for fourteen years, taking part in expeditions all over Greenland and in northern Canada, sharing all sorts of adventures and hardships and adding much to our knowledge of the Arctic regions. These reminiscences, recently translated from the Danish by Arnold Andersen, combine the best features of an adventure story, a personal chronicle and a biography. (Julian Messner. 1958. 224 pp. Ill. Price \$3.95).

Oxford University Press now has available a second edition of *An Introduction to Old Norse* by E. V. Gordon. Revised by A. R. Taylor, this book, like the many printings of the first edition, will prove useful both for class-room instruction and self-study. Being also a splendid introduction to Old Norse literature, this standard work contains a wide selection of prose and verse, in addition to a grammar, a glossary, and a bibliography. (1957. 412 pp. Ill. and maps. Price \$5.60).

*Papa's Daughter* by Thyra Ferré Bjorn is a warm and romantic story of a girl growing up in Swedish Lapland in the first decade of this century. The second child in a pastor's family, the heroine of this entertaining book had a dream which she dared to follow and which was in time fulfilled after she had emigrated with her parents to America. (Rinehart. 1958. 238 pp. Price \$3.50).

*Viking's Wake* by Richard J. MacCullagh is the story of an actual cruise, made in a small boat, among all the Danish islands, in the Kattegat and across the North Sea. The author, a lecturer in a teacher's training college in Northern Ireland, tells entertainingly about the voyage and has added much fascinating historical information about the waters, the islands and the ports of Southern Scandinavia. Numerous drawings and charts by the artist-author as well as photographs establish this handsome large-size volume. (D. Van Nostrand Co. 239 pp. Price \$6.50).

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Visiting soloists and performing groups—present and future—seem to constitute the major Scandinavian impact on American music life for the present, especially at New York Metropolitan Opera. Kim Borg, Finnish bass, and Elisabeth Söderström, Stockholm Royal Opera soprano, have both given notable accounts of themselves at 39th and Broadway, as well as in current recitals; but it has been the Stockholm Royal Opera's Birgit Nilsson who stole the spotlight away from her colleagues with her December 18 triumph in the title role of Wagner's *Tristan und Isolde*. We were a little surprised to see how *The New York Times* review of the occasion (and its editorial page, too!) created the impression that Mme. Nilsson soared to Metropolitan renown from a status of relative obscurity. Unless my memory deceives me, Birgit Nilsson has enjoyed a position of distinction in Scandinavia, and in Europe generally, for a half-dozen years. We are always surprised to see expressed in print the attitude that no musician, however eminent in Europe, can be said to have made the grade until they have done so in New York.

Also worthy of note are two less-heralded performing groups from Norway and Finland, respectively, who have met with great success at the Brooklyn Academy of Music this season during the course of their American tours. They are the Norwegian Festival Company with its delightful folklore presentations and a group from the Finnish National Ballet. The Finns, to piano accompaniment, offered modern ballets to music by Einar Englund and Ahti Sonninen and got a very cordial reception from the New York press—especially from John Martin, dance critic of *The New York Times*. There was no mistaking his eagerness to have the Finnish company back here in its entirety one day, performing with full symphony orchestra.

The future looks more than interesting in terms of future musical visitors from the Northern countries; for 1960-61 Columbia Artists Management announcements tell us that we can expect a return tour by the Royal Danish Ballet, which was such an ornament to the 1956-57 dance season. In addition, CAM will introduce the New Danish Quartet, a brilliant ensemble comparable to our Juilliard String Quartet over here, as well as the Karlakór Reykjavíkur (The Icelandic Singers), Iceland's top ranking male choir.

Live performances of contemporary Scandinavian repertoire have been relatively sparse for the moment—the Brooklyn Philharmonia under Siegfried Landau offered the Concert Overture, Op. 2 by Edvard Grieg's Brahm of Norway on December 12. It is interesting to note that the Seventh Symphony by Vagn Holmboe of Denmark has been taped from its performance by Fritz Mahler and the Hartford Symphony Orchestra as part of the reference recording project of the International Music Fund.

As for commercial recordings on LP, there are a number of new and interesting items to report. For example, Vox has brought us in performances by Aaron Rosand a Sibelius disc premiere, that of the charming Humoresques for Violin and Orchestra, Opp. 87b & 89; while London has issued a Kirsten Flagstad recording consisting entirely of Norwegian songs—not by Grieg only, but by Alnæs, Lie and Eggen as well. Most interesting of all, perhaps, to devotees of the Scandinavian vocal art is news concerning the recordings made by Danish singer Aksel Schiøtz when he was at the peak of his powers as a tenor. Only a small percentage of the nearly 300 78 rpm sides that he made between 1938 and 1948 have ever been issued on LP, even in Denmark. We are happy to report that virtually the entire Aksel Schiøtz output—Mozart, Bach, Handel, Dowland, Buxtehude, Haydn, Schubert, Schumann, Grieg, Bellman, Carl Nielsen and many others—will be available on LP in this country through major record shops by mid-1960. Credit for this project goes to record importer Harry Goldman of New York.

DAVID HALL



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#### SAS Introduces Jet Service

Scandinavian Airlines System will operate DC-8 jetliners during 1960 from four North American cities to Europe, with the new service being inaugurated from New York April 9; Los Angeles, May 9; Montreal, September 2, and Anchorage, September 16.

Flying times on the new SAS DC-8's will be New York/Copenhagen, seven hours, five minutes; New York/Glasgow, six hours; Montreal/Copenhagen, six hours, forty-five minutes; and Anchorage/Copenhagen, eight hours, twenty-five minutes, all non-stop. Elapsed time Los Angeles/Copenhagen will be twelve hours including a one-hour technical stop at Søndre Strømfjord, Greenland.

Jetspeed connections for passengers continuing beyond Copenhagen, gateway to all Europe, will be offered to 28 cities in that continent, the Middle East and Africa over SAS' Caravelle jet network.

Initially, SAS will operate daily DC-8 service from New York to Copenhagen, beginning April 9. The frequency will be increased to ten trips weekly from May 9 and fifteen weekly from June 2. The peak of eighteen on this route will be reached after July 2.

#### Stockholm's Jet Airport Ready

A milestone in the history of Swedish commercial aviation was reached some time ago when Stockholm's new international airport, Arlanda, received its first passenger aircraft, an SAS Caravelle jetliner. The main runway, which extends about two miles, has been built in a record-breaking eighteen months by a task force of 900 construction workers. Arlanda will be put into operation in the spring when SAS will start scheduled intercontinental services with DC-8 jet airliners.

The new airport is the first in Europe specifically designed to cope with the jet age. It covers an area of 6,250 acres. The distance from the center of Stockholm is 24 miles, and city dwellers, therefore, will not be disturbed by the noise of jets.

*Icelandic Airlines Adds DC-6B Aircraft  
and Starts Service to Helsinki and Bergen*

Icelandic Airlines this spring has added world-famous DC-6B aircraft to its fleet of Douglas airliners. Two new planes have been purchased and will be placed in service to various destinations about April 1. The DC-6B, also known as the Cloudmaster, has for some years been one of the finest and most popular planes in the trans-Atlantic traffic, since it combines speed with great comfort. Thus, traveling time from New York to Oslo will be reduced by about 5 hours and to Amsterdam up to 8 hours. The DC-6B takes 80 passengers, and due to its large size the highest degree of comfort is assured.

In the course of the past winter both flying and ground personnel of IAL and of Braathen's SAFE have attended courses in the operation of the new aircraft.

In keeping with the company's tradition of using Icelandic and Old Norse names for its aircraft, one has been christened *Leifur Eiriksson*, while the other name is as yet unknown. In spite of this improvement in services the fares will remain the same as last year. IAL will still keep some of its Douglas Skymasters in operation.

It has also been announced by Mr. Nicholas Craig, President of Icelandic Airlines, that Helsinki and Bergen have been added to the trans-Atlantic routes of the company, with service to the Finnish city scheduled to begin in May. Regular Friday flights will be made to Oslo and Helsinki via Reykjavik. The return portion of the flight will leave Helsinki on Saturdays.

The capital of Finland has been added to IAL's network of routes because of travelers' growing interest in all of Scandinavia. In addition to Helsinki, Icelandic serves the three other major nations of the region, providing flights to Oslo, Gothenburg and Copenhagen. The airline also serves Glasgow, London, Amsterdam, Luxembourg, and Hamburg.

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Linjebuss International, the well-known Swedish firm operating bus lines and tours throughout Europe, has scheduled a full program for the 1960 season. The many popular tours of Italy, Spain, Switzerland, Austria, Great Britain and Scandinavia are offered again this year as well as the Six Countries Tour, the Famous Cities Tour, the Western Europe Tour, and the Southern France and Italy Tour, which was introduced with great success last year. Also listed is the de-luxe 30-day Grand Tour of Europe, which takes in all the best of the continent of Europe. The tours will depart generally once a week from Paris, Basle, Copenhagen, or Amsterdam. The tour of England and Scotland will leave from London.

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#### *Danish Food Fair*

A Danish Food Fair—the first of its kind ever held in Denmark, takes place in Aalborg June 3 to 12, 1960. Denmark exports food delicacies to 120 countries all over the world, and the Fair will therefore not only attract the people of the trade but many tourists will no doubt be interested in seeing what one of the world's leading food producing countries has to offer.

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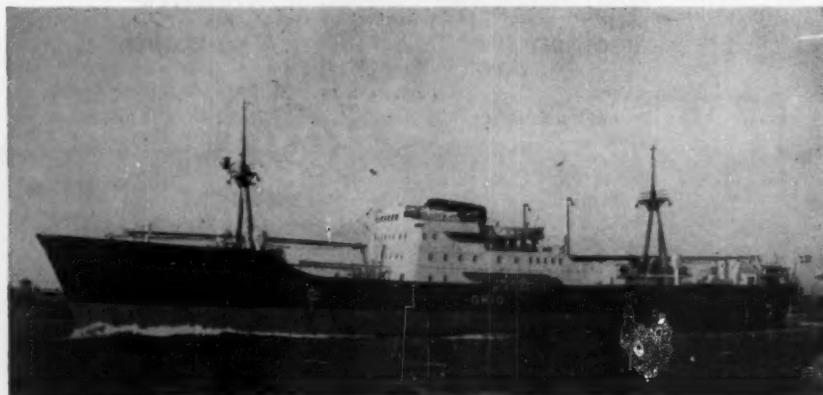
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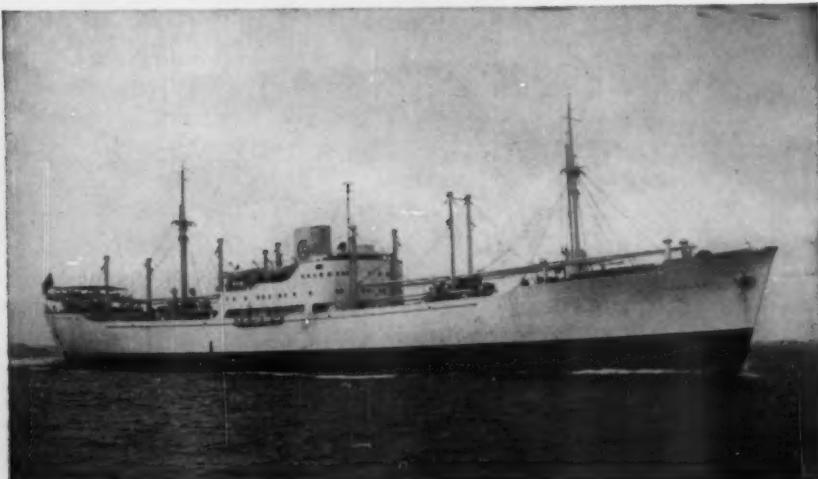


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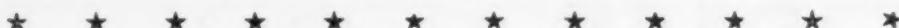
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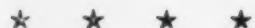


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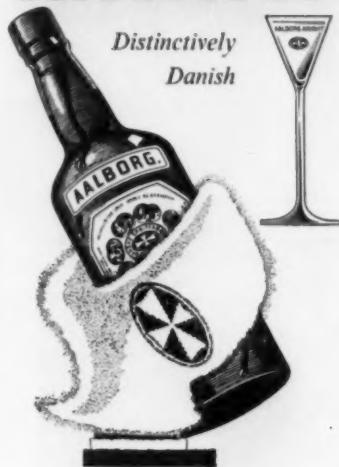
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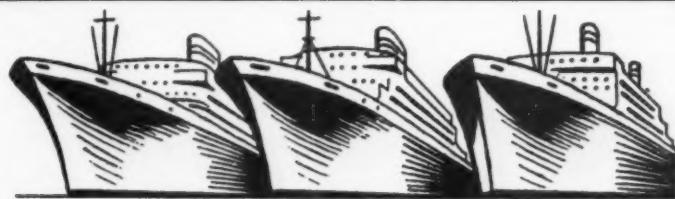
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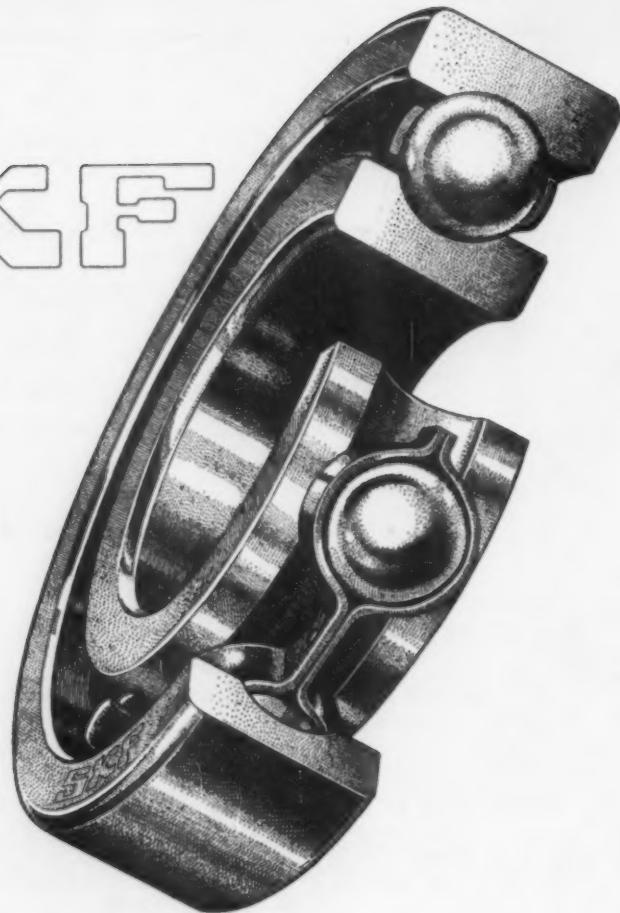
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